DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 187 505	RC 012 070
AUTHOR	Hulen, Lynn R., Comp.
TITLE	Educating for Social Work Practice in Rural Areas. A Report on the Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project of the School of Social Work, California State University, Fresno.
INSTITUTION	California State Univ., Fresno.
SPONS AGENCY	Social and Rehabilitation Service (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jun 78
GRANT	84-P-96651/9-01
NOTE	111p.
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Child Welfare; College Curriculum; Conference Proceedings; Curriculum Design; *Curriculum Development; Delivery Systems; Field Instruction; *Higher Education; *Needs Assessment; Professional Training; Program Development; Program Implementation; *Rural Areas; *Social Work
IDENTIFIERS	*California State University Fresno; *Rural Child Welfare Family Service Project

ABSTRACT

Because of a mounting awareness that those most at risk in America today are the rural poor, educating for social work practice in rural areas has become an important and growing concern to many in the field of social work education. This report incorporates the findings and materials germane to developing a specific rural child welfare and family service curriculum process at California State University, Fresno. Basic to the project is the thesis that in order to be trained in the field of rural child welfare and family service, students must have adequate preparation, both practical and theoretical. They must learn: to develop a needs assessment plan; to design, plan, and implement a service delivery system; and to develop skills for service delivery and evaluation, ideally in a training setting (community) where child welfare and family services are slight, or totally nonexistent. Part I presents a report on a survey of need for rural services in the west Fresno County rural area, a preliminary step to actual curriculum development. Part II, the Proceedings of the March 1978 Rural Curriculum Development Conference contains both papers presented or made available to the conference and a summary of the Conference Task Study Group findings. Part III includes supplementary papers, provided by national resource people and addressed to the multifaceted issues and problems of implementing a rural curriculum. (NEC)

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EDUCATING FOR SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN RURAL AREAS

A REPORT ON
THE RURAL CHILD WELFARE AND FAMILY SERVICE PROJECT*
OF
THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, FRESNO

JUNE 1978

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
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EDUCATING FOR SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN RURAL AREAS

A Report on
The Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project*
of
The School of Social Work
California State University, Fresno

Compiled by
Lynn R. Hulen, Assistant Professor
Project Coordinator

June 1978

*Supported by a grant from the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, 84-P-96651/9-01

FOREWORD

Educating for social work practice in rural areas has become an important and growing concern to many in the field of social work education. There is increasing awareness that the methods and skills applied to urban areas may not be applicable to rural areas or small communities.

Unfortunately, the literature and research in the field have not kept up with the increasing demand for materials which would aid schools in developing rural curriculum content. The neglect in research education material in rural social work practice, while understandable, is unfortunate. The history, development, and major orientation of social work in America has been urban focused. The major social problems and societal issues have been viewed as having direct relationship to the phenomena of urbanization. The increasing interest by social work in rural problems has come through mounting awareness that those who are most at risk in America today are the rural poor.

The materials in this report were presented at the First (to our knowledge) California Conference on Rural Social Work Education and Practice. The material presented at the Fresno conference, while specifically geared to helping the School of Social Work at California State University, Fresno, in its curriculum development task, hopefully will be of value as a resource to other schools interested in this growing area.

The School wishes to express its indebtedness and appreciation for the valuable contributions of the conference participants. We specifically wish to thank those persons who gave leadership in making major presentations and chairing workshop groups. The names of these participants are presented in the appendix to this report. Without their help and contributions, this report could not have been possible.

We are indebted to the planning group for the time and effort which went into the technical preparation for the conference. Our special thanks goes to Kathy Vander Meer for the fine editorial job in the preparation of this material and the University Stenographic Service Center for preparing the report for publication.

The conference and the report could not have been possible without the grant support from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Services. A special note of thanks and appreciation must be expressed for the untiring efforts, dedication, and overall development of the conference and this report by Professor Lynn Hulen. His contributions have been significant in advancing the recognition of Central California as a major area of research and development in rural social work practice.

Richard D. Ford, Dean
School of Social Work
California State University, Fresno

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INTRODUCTION

The materials contained in this report are the result of the Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project of the School of Social Work, California State University, Fresno. This project, begun in the Fall semester, 1975, and proposed to continue through the Spring semester, 1980, was supported by a grant from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service.

Basic to the project was the thesis that in order to be trained in the field of rural child welfare and family services, students must have adequate preparation, both practical and theoretical: they must learn to develop a needs assessment plan; to design, plan, and implement a service delivery system, and to develop skills for service delivery and evaluation. Ideally, such training takes place in communities where child welfare and family services are slight, or totally nonexistent.

Fresno County is located in the mid-San Joaquin Valley of Central California and is comprised of some 24 small incorporated and unincorporated rural agricultural communities with a large population of Mexican Americans. All of the functional social services which are needed in these small rural communities are located in the City of Fresno; therefore, these communities have had to look to urban-based agencies for the services they need in order to achieve self-sufficiency for their populations. There has been a dearth of trained social workers of any kind in most of these rural communities.

During the first year of the project, therefore, students from CSUF were assigned to select target communities, where they completed an assessment of needs, choosing as respondents agency professionals and community residents, and subsequently working in various projects to implement service delivery to meet these identified needs.[1] During the second and third years, students were placed with organizations and rural agencies where on-site supervision by year-round workers helped provide more continuity to the training and service development aspects of the project, including emphasis on the organizational and agency linkages needed in rural communities.

The experience of the first two years in particular documented the need for specific rural curriculum development. A project advisory committee composed of representatives of rural community agencies, students, and faculty recommended expansion of the school's curriculum on rural practice, such that the California State University, Fresno, School of Social Work, might implement and offer a specific rural concentration, perhaps by the Fall semester, 1978. This effort was in tune with the national urging of social work educators and practitioners for the development of relevant training programs for rural social work practice.

The following report, divided into three sections, incorporates the findings and materials germane to this curriculum development process at California State University, Fresno. Preliminary to the actual curriculum development, the Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project turned to a survey of needs for rural services in the west Fresno County rural area. A report on this survey forms the first part of this project report. Part II, the Proceedings of the Rural Curriculum Development Conference held at California State University, Fresno, in March, 1978, contains both papers presented or made available to the conference and a summary of the Conference Task Study Group findings. The third and final section is comprised of supplementary papers, provided by various national resource people and addressed to the multifaceted issues and problems in implementing a rural curriculum.

This report is not meant to be a final product, but rather a working resource document, to be utilized, along with other materials, in making specific curriculum recommendations. The report is, in addition, being distributed to schools of social work and other institutions and agencies on request, in the hope that it may facilitate their own planning for education in social work practice for rural areas.

FOOTNOTES

[1] For a complete description of the project's beginning and a conceptual perspective on the project's field learning component, please refer to Polly Victor's paper, "MSW and BSW Student Placements in Rural Communities," presented at the First National Institute on Social Work in Rural Areas and published in Social Work in Rural Areas, Preparation and Practice, edited by Ronald Green and Stephen Webster (University of Tennessee, School of Social Work, 1977).

Part I

SURVEY REPORT: RURAL CHILD WELFARE AND FAMILY SERVICE PROJECT REPORT

SURVEY REPORT:
RURAL CHILD WELFARE AND FAMILY SERVICE PROJECT

Introduction

Most frequently, social workers have been trained with an urban service orientation. Economical forces and politics have emphasized urban services, virtually ignoring the necessity for rural services. Recognizing the lack of material documenting the need for rural services and training for rural practitioners, it was felt that research into this area would help in the development of a rural human service curriculum. The purpose of the survey project was to obtain information from rural human service providers in the west Fresno County rural area which would reflect how they spent their time and identify which activities they considered most important to the effective performance of their jobs. This information was to serve as a partial basis for inferring the competencies students would require to perform adequately in a rural setting. The goal was to identify major and minor knowledge areas, skills needed, and values requisite to successful rural practice. Based on these findings it was hoped that a list of preliminary curriculum objectives might be developed.

It was decided that the most effective means for collecting the data to meet the purpose of the research project would be an in-person survey conducted with representatives from those agencies providing rural human services. Such personal contacts would, it was reasoned, assure return of the survey; assure that questions were understood and completed as accurately as possible; develop relations with the agencies in the area; and allow students to gain firsthand knowledge by visiting the agencies involved. For example, through direct experience the interviewers might realize more fully the impact of rural distances on such essentials as transportation, communication networks, and service delivery.

The data will be summarized in the same order as the questions were asked. (A copy of the survey may be found in Appendix A.) There were 23 surveys completed, encompassing the majority of rural human services provided in west Fresno's rural area. Some complications such as time (especially transportation time), availability of rural providers for interviews, and weather (particularly fog) prevented completion of more interviews. The interviews lasted from one to three hours. Most of those interviewed were cooperative and willing to share their experiences as rural human service providers. Only a few did not appear to have a special commitment to working in rural areas. The majority of the providers also shared enthusiasm for the project and the future development of a rural human service curriculum.

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Findings of the Objective Data

General Information

Questions in this section of the survey were asked in order to obtain general characteristics of the people presently providing rural human services. Of the 23 providers interviewed, there were twice as many females as males. The average age was 32. The ethnic breakdown was: 13 Anglos, 7 Chicanos, 2 Blacks, and 1 Oriental. Approximately half of the providers were bilingual Spanish, appropriate for this particular area where there is such a large proportion of Mexican Americans. The 23 providers interviewed supervised 62 people. Thirteen of the 23 interviewed had completed four or more years of college, receiving a BA, with four having received an MSW. None had received a BSW.

The agencies were then broken down into two categories: agencies which operated outreach services to rural areas and those specifically located in the rural area. Of the 23, 15 were outreach providers and only eight were located in the rural area itself.

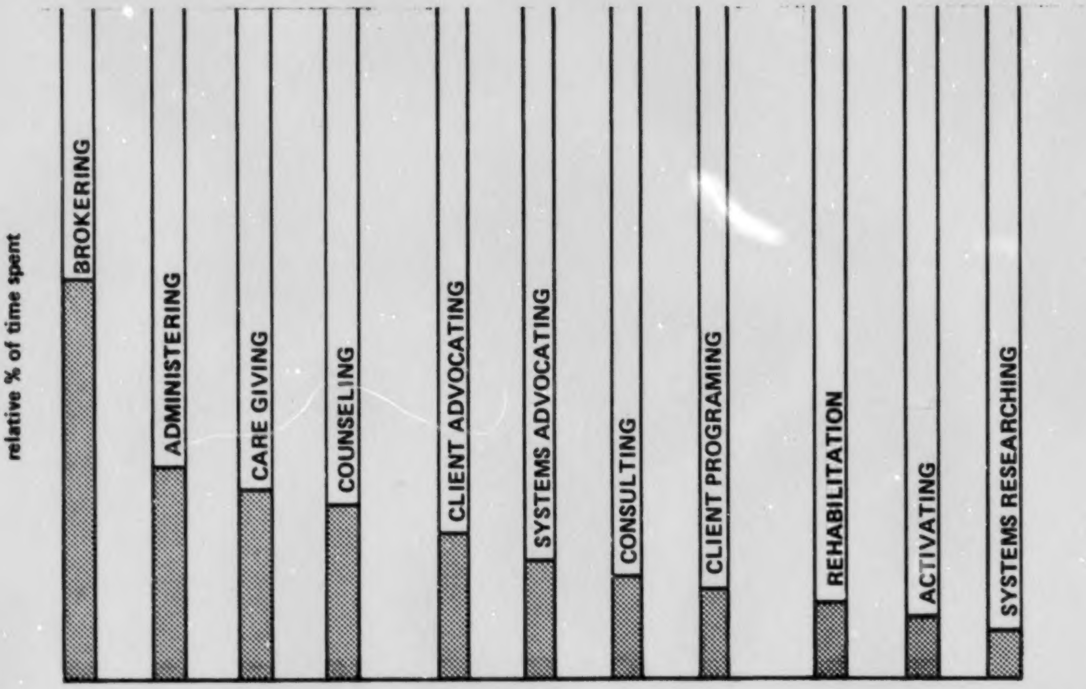
Analysis of Time Use

The second section of the survey was designed to determine the relative proportion of time devoted to major human service roles. This was to be answered considering the providers' entire range of responsiblities. The question was written requesting a percentage of time providers felt they devote to major human service roles. Providers were confused and appeared to have trouble completing this section. The length and elaboration required seem to be the main reason for this confusion. As a result, three providers did not complete the section at all and six answered improperly, i.e., assigning numbers which totaled beyond 100 percent. In compiling this data, the 14 sections which were completed correctly were tallied together. Then, the ones improperly filled out were loosely compiled separately.

The bar graph in Figure 1, page 7, represents the data collected from the 14 surveys in which Section II was completed correctly. Although it was not possible to compile the data from the incorrectly completed surveys, the proportion of time reported spent was proportionately similar to those surveys answered correctly. (Please refer to the survey in Appendix A for an elaboration of the human service roles.)

Significant Activities

In order to obtain an idea of the providers' activities which were significant or critical to the effective performance



MAJOR HUMAN SERVICE ROLES* (Refer to Section II of Survey)

Figure 1

ROLE PROFILE OF RURAL HUMAN SERVICE PROVIDERS
(Analysis of Time Use)

*These major human service roles are taken from a paper by Michael J. Austin, "Competency Based Service Delivery: Towards a Curriculum Development Strategy," presented at the First Annual Big Sky Summer Symposium, Department of Social Work, University of Montana, Big Sky, Montana, August, 1977.

of their job, we asked them to describe two or three of their most significant activities and give their (brief) reasons for that choice. Few respondents were able to clarify why they chose the activities they did. The activities were broken into ten different types and are listed here in descending order of the general amount of time devoted to them, with the provision of direct services taking approximately 90 percent and the others varying depending on the individual provider.

1. Provision of direct services; supportive services, caretaking, providing food and/or hot meals, home visits, crisis intervention, medical attention, helping clients with housing problems, placing people in jobs, providing transportation, work with students' attendance review board, group work, and individual and family counseling.

2. Consultation; contacting and working with other agencies.

3. Supervision; field supervision of social work students, volunteers, licensed care homes, and general staff.

4. Community relations; parent and community meetings, speaking in public meetings, and general public relations work.

5. Paperwork; grant writing and reporting.

6. Program coordination and administration.

7. Information and referral.

8. Handling money.

9. Preventive work.

10. Conducting in-service training.

Providers were then asked how they would rather use their time, if they could spend it differently. The answers received were separated into five categories and the number of responses to these categories tallied. A desire for the following was expressed:

-more time with clients, i.e., home visits and individual counseling
-more community work, i.e., community education
-more staff development and in-service training
-better outreach
-more work in administration

The providers were asked for reasons why they feel they are not able to use their time as they would like to. The reasons given were as follows:

- too much paperwork
- too much to do; too little time
- not enough manpower
- weather (especially fog)
- distance
- budget
- language barrier
- meeting building licensing regulations
- must stay in office, can't get to people

The last question in Section III asked whether providers were able to reach their target population. Nineteen answered "yes". Seven of the 19 answered simply "yes", while the remaining 12 gave various reasons why. These reasons included:

- by home visits or going to them (the clients)
- by media, i.e., T.V., radio, newspaper, or simply word of mouth
- by volunteers

Eleven providers responded "no" and gave the following reasons:

- not enough staff
- racial prejudice
- time (lack of)
- hard to get community together, i.e., politics
- transportation
- budget

Influential Factors and Qualifications

Section IV was designed to obtain information which was twofold: First, what education, experience and skills, and personal characteristics are fundamental and necessary; and second, what education, experience, skills and personal characteristics are desirable (but not necessary) for a person working in rural human services.

Suggested as fundamental and necessary in educational background were the following:

- Two felt high school education to be sufficient, one felt junior college sufficient, and two felt a M.S.W. necessary. Other responses were suggestions such as: being literate, knowledge beyond "sense knowledge," capability in accounting skills, knowledge of government functions, and "depends on the person."

Experience and skills fundamental and necessary included the following suggestions:

-being bilingual; familiarity with farm labor and an agricultural culture; ability to adjust and work with few alternatives (both in socialization and community resources); experience dealing with people; training in communicating skills; good skills in community organization; knowledge of welfare, social security, DIB and unemployment; experience with consultation; ability to determine needs and analyze people and events.

The most numerous suggestions were given for personal characteristics considered fundamental and necessary. According to data under this section, a person entering rural human services must:

-get along with and like people
-have the ability to free himself from own values (nonjudgmental)
-possess good communication and listening skills
-be able to tolerate and understand and have desire to work with different socioeconomic classes
-be satisfied to live in rural areas
-be patient
-be able to live in a "fishbowl" environment
-be empathetic and warm
-be able to deal with confidentiality well
-be willing to put out for people
-have good awareness and ability to express self
-be almost "missionary"
-be sociable
-have a sense of humor
-like rural people
-be able to identify with rural needs
-have common sense
-be flexible
-be broad-minded
-have a good personality
-have a commitment to cause
-be self-confident
-have self-initiative
-be aggressive yet personable
-be honest and creative

The second part of this question, asking what would be desirable (but not necessary), received fewer responses. Under education, one person listed high school; one, junior college; three, a BA; and many such comments as "the more the better".

Under experience and skills the answers were varied, as in part one of this section, with such answers as:

-Have worked in agriculture, experience writing grants, case load management skills, bilingual, experience in rural human service placement during supervised internship, have a good education in different cultures and have been trained in communicating skills.

Suggestions for desirable personal characteristics were again similar to those in part one of the section. They were that the person be:

-Sensitive to people and their needs, hard-nosed, and self-confident; that he or she feel for people (be empathetic); be sociable, able to express self, not afraid to fail, and have a genuine concern for people.

Rural areas differ from one another and generally have specific regional problems, issues, concerns and characteristics. The next question in Section IV, number 3, asked respondents to describe some of the unique features within their area of employment. Responses listed in rank order were as follows:

-Isolation
-Racial problems
-Lack of transportation
-Lack of services and facilities
-Lack of community involvement
-Poor medical care
-Drug problems
-Conservative politics
-Agricultural society
-Large number of Spanish-speaking people
-No middle class--very rich/very poor
-No jobs
-No training
-Poor police protection
-Poor housing

Then respondents were to list specific services they felt to be lacking in their area.

-Medical services
-Transportation
-Mental health services
-Drug abuse program
-Housing
-Education
-Employment
-Bilingual instruction
-Welfare representatives
-Senior citizen services
-Services for youth

- -Multipurpose centers
- -Job training
- -Community education
- -Family planning
- -Shopping centers and restaurants

When asked what problems or needs are unique to rural areas, in general, the answers changed and were a little more general while still reflecting the specific problems noted earlier:

- -Transportation problems
- -Isolation
- -Lack of facilities
- -Lack of medical care
- -Lack of social activities
- -No jobs
- -Very rich/very poor
- -Youth have nothing to do
- -Lack of recreation
- -Poor education
- -Political corruption
- -Housing (poor)

Question 6 in Section IV asked for respondents to list some of the positive and negative aspects of working in rural areas. These were listed as follows:

Positive	Negative
People	**People**
rural people are nice	none listed
get to know them well	
very personable	
personal closeness	
a lot of people need help	
people usually home	
Community	**Community**
people know everyone else's business	hard to be anonymous
easy to detect problems	no outsiders allowed
community organization less complex	long time to get started
community caring	certain groups control
community conscience	no resources or services
willingness to work	ethnic problems
open to change	people not ready for mental health
desire to update "behind times"	more problems than big city
potential for growth and development	

Positive

Working Conditions

variety of problems to deal with
services are now going to rural areas
sense of satisfaction when something is completed
a lot of appreciation
no traffic jams

Negative

Working Conditions

start from scratch
weather (fog)
slower pace
transportation
valley fever
hard to get to people

Suggestions for how a student could be better prepared for rural human service provision were:

-Have rural background
-Live there
-Go and do farm labor
-Complete supervised field placement
-Don't be a "do-gooder", help them help themselves
-Be able to accept lack of resources and isolation
-Willing to learn
-Don't go in thinking you will change everything
-Large burn-out rate (be aware of)
-Love and be sensitive to people
-Understand different cultures
-Be bilingual
-Good understanding of community organizations
-Learn ways of rural politics
-Make ways of rural politics
-Make contact with key organizations

Those surveyed were asked for specific suggestions for courses they felt would better prepare a student planning to enter rural human service provision. Courses suggested were:

-Minority studies
-Communicating skills
-Human behavior
-Community organization
-Political science
-Spanish
-Administration
-Basic recreation
-Recreational leadership
-Community education
-Needs assessment
-Crisis intervention
-Drug counseling
-Family counseling
-Home nursing
-Personality of rural people

- Arts and crafts
- Problem solving
- General suggestion: less theory/more realism

The last question asked for any other thoughts, ideas, feelings or suggestions. Answers were as follows:

- Personality is important
- Accept who and what people are
- Be patient
- Give people hope
- Facilitate old to accept new ways of service delivery
- Rehabilitate old farm workers who are no longer able to work in the field

Interpretive Summary

General Information

The interviewers found conducting this research project rewarding. The majority of the providers interviewed were interesting, concerned and committed people. The female graduate assistant who conducted most of the interviews found it encouraging that many women were involved in administration and program coordination. Also of interest was the great number of people actively involved in West Fresno politics and social service development.

It was not surprising to find only eight out of 15 service agencies actually located in the rural area. Thus it was evident that we could not consider services in Fresno "available" with so many barriers in the way of those in need of the services.

It is noted that only four of the 23 respondents had obtained an MSW degree. This reflects the national tendency for rural social services to be provided largely by persons with BA's or less. However, it is especially interesting to note that none of the respondents in this survey had a bachelor degree with a social work major. This strongly suggests that these numbers reflect the dearth of trained social workers in rural areas on both the BSW and MSW levels. A subsequent assumption must be that schools of social work need to assume a leadership role in the preparation of rural practitioners at the bachelor and master's levels.

Analysis of Time Use

The respondents interviewed spent over half (55.8 percent) of their time providing direct services as well as performing agency administrative functions. This dual involvement with direct services and administrative duties strongly implies the need for a broad knowledge and skills base which may perhaps best be obtained through an educational program which embraces a generalist perspective.

Significant Activities:

In this section it seemed obvious that the provision of direct services was the priority for the survey's respondents. What may be less obvious, but nonetheless essential to note, is the number of responses that retained such things as consultation, supervision, community relations, grant-related activities, and program administration as significant or critical to the effective performance of their jobs. This profile of the rural practitioner which combines direct services, indirect services, administration and planning once again reinforces the generalist concept in education for the rural service provider.

Direct service delivery remained the top priority where the respondents were asked how they would like to spend more of their time, but community work, staff development, and administration still remained prominent.

An interesting finding was that while the respondents could explain their significant activities in detail, they were unable on the whole to explain why they had chosen as they did. It is suggested here that given the general lack of professional training and education, the respondents perhaps were missing a conceptual base which would provide them with a framework for dealing with the reasons for their choices. The impression was that often these providers might be "flying by the seat of their pants," rather than operating in a planned way. This might again imply the need for more education and training to be provided in the preparation and continuing education of rural human service providers.

Influential Factors and Qualifications:

It had been the hope of the survey team that this section would create a matrix of skills, knowledge, and value objectives from which one might reason appropriate curriculum objectives. However, while the list contained many significant suggestions it seemed insufficient to actually synthesize into a composite listing. The findings here are therefore offered with the suggestion that they be utilized in conjunction with the findings relevant to the major human services roles and significant activities of the respondents.

The emphasis given by respondents to personal qualifications as opposed to education, knowledge, and skills reinforced the importance of the kind of person you are as being paramount in a rural area where your direct contacts with clients and community are less insulated by the structure and agency systems and anonymity of many urban settings. At the same time it would appear that the same possible lack of conceptual knowledge perhaps generally reflected by the respondents would also restrict their ability to generalize, especially in educational terms, what experience and skills would be required for the rural worker. This becomes clearer when the respondents enumerate later in the survey their specific course suggestions to help prepare rural practitioners, and indicate a need for a goodly amount of knowledge and skills. Thus while personal characteristics perhaps seem to be given the highest priority, it can be inferred that you are expected to be knowledgeable and skilled also. In addition, through the answers given regarding experience, skills, and specific course suggestions, the respondents again reinforce the need for direct service skills preparation as well as administrative, planning, and community skills preparation.

Finally, the responses on positive and negative aspects of rural practice, along with the suggestions made by the respondents on how a student might be better prepared to enter rural human service provision, indicate that a major task of education would be to help sensitize or acculturate the student to rural practice. The importance of direct rural experience is a constant theme.

Schools of social work must help train rural practitioners for what they are now doing as well as what they are not doing, but would like to be doing. This needs to be accomplished within the context of helping to develop or nurture those personal characteristics and commitments vital to rural work. Training in direct service skills must be combined with community and administrative experience in the preparation of the rural practitioner. A generalist education would seem to be the best vehicle for accomplishing these goals, providing what Vic Howery of Wisconsin has referred to as "multi-functional specialists" in rural practice on the local level, as well as future leaders on a regional and national basis.

Part II

PROCEEDINGS OF THE RURAL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE

PROCEEDINGS OF THE RURAL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE

Introduction

The Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project at California State University, Fresno, sponsored a small rural curriculum development conference on March 16 and 17, 1978. Since there had been relatively little development of rural curriculum and educational programs for training rural social work practitioners, it was thought the conference could generate helpful information concerning issues in rural social work education that would contribute to the increasing general pool of information available to those involved at different educational institutions in training rural practitioners. It was specifically hoped the conference would provide ideas about rural curriculum objectives and training models that might be utilized in creating a rural concentration at Fresno. In addition, since there had been little systematic communication among social work educators concerned with rural social work in the Western United States, the conference sought to provide a vehicle for establishing an informal communication network among these social work faculty from various schools of social work in the West. Thus, representatives with rural teaching experience from various western schools of social work were invited as consultants to the project. Most importantly in terms of the local Fresno curriculum planning effort, the conference was an integral part of the process in working toward the implementation of a rural concentration. In addition to the outside resource consultants, the conference brought together local rural community practitioners, Fresno School of Social Work faculty, and students in a mutual planning effort. If the Fresno project were to be successful in implementing a rural concentration, it would need to be a program that these various groups planned on together so that it would indeed be their program. The conference then was to act as a catalyst in the efforts of the local project advisory committee to effect rural programming at the California State University, Fresno, School of Social Work.

The following proceedings of this conference are divided into two parts: first, papers presented by facilitators and outside consultants, and second, the report of the Conference Task Study Groups.

The conference was fortunate in having Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet of the University of Missouri-Columbia, School of Social Work as its primary facilitators. Their leadership was invaluable in accomplishing the goals of the conference.

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Their keynote address, "Education for Social Work Practice in the Rural Context," presented many critical issues for consideration in designing rural curriculum. Using a clear example of urban bias, they present the importance of understanding the rural context, and go on to examine the human service delivery systems operating in a rural community. The professional roles that the rural worker engages in toward establishing a credibility in the community provide further invaluable insights. Mermelstein and Sundet make a strong proposal for a generalist model for social work education for rural practice, but caution that this will require some adjustments in traditional teaching methodologies and content. And finally, they posit some issues that the educational process must address in preparing the rural worker both in the classroom and practicum experience.

While the field component received some emphasis at the conference, the overall thrust was toward integrating rural content into all curriculum areas in the training of the rural worker. Two methods of integration discussed were the use of "lab-courses" and simulation games.

Louise Johnson, director of the Social Work Program at the University of South Dakota, shared in her paper an example of how that school integrates rural content into a practice course through the use of laboratory assignments, thus enhancing the students' learning while preparing them for more intensive learning situations.

Lynne Morris of Eastern Washington University also shared her expertise in the use of simulation games for integrating rural content into curriculum. From "Deciding to go" to "If you had it to do over, would you choose a career in rural social work?" her "Routes to Rural Practice" offered an exciting example of innovative creative teaching.

Whether discussing practice, policy or field curriculum, the conference participants consistently supported the efficacy of a generalist training in the preparation of social workers practicing in a rural environment. From the opening keynote address to the closing summary, the rural generalist theme remained constant. The description of the social work generalist provided by Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet at the conference examined implications and outlined some expected practice competencies of the generalist practitioners.

Following the Mermelstein and Sundet paper, this report offers some notes prepared by Karen Irey of the University of Oklahoma, School of Social Work. Professor Irey and her colleagues at Oklahoma have sought to implement a curriculum responsive to the training needs of social workers practicing in Oklahoma and similar kinds of areas. This locality-relevant programming has led to the School of Social Work faculty's approval of a plan to implement an advanced generalist specialization with the possibility of this becoming the curriculum base, while providing electives for individual student interests and "sub-specializations." Ms. Irey's brief history of the school's background leading to the advanced generalist proposal may indeed parallel experiences at other schools, and thus provide a perspective for their own curriculum development efforts. Her committee's working draft report regarding generalist practice and the objectives proposed for the advanced generalist specialization form the last of the offerings in this part of the proceedings.

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE IN THE RURAL CONTEXT*

Introduction

A growing concern today within the circles of education, and particularly higher education, is not only the late 1960's--early 1970's cry for "relevance," but recognition that an education must be "fit," "apt." It must produce definable results. The era of general developmental education, of undisciplined individuality, has led to student frustration and public backlash--a change in academic focus, for good or bad, has taken place and with change has come accelerated demand and enrollment in practice-oriented sequences, such as the degree programs in social work. But are these programs really "relevant" or "fit," particularly for preparing social workers to work in rural practice?

Let us recreate an interview which took place a little while ago on a large, metropolitan college campus about 150 or so miles southwest of here. The scene is the College of Education Admissions Office.

Role Play

Dr. Mann -"How do you do? I am Dr. Horace Mann, Director of Admissions, and you are...?"

Hortense Helper -"I am Hortense Helper. How do you do, Dr. Mann?"

Dr. Mann -"Ahhh, Hortense Helper. Is it Miss or Mrs.?"

Hortense Helper -"It is Ms."

Dr. Mann -"Oh..... Ms. Helper. Now I understand that you wish to apply for admission to the College of Education?"

Hortense Helper -"Yes, I want to get a Teacher's Certificate."

Dr. Mann -"Oh? Then I gather you have a different background than education?"

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*By Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet, School of Social Work, University of Missouri-Columbia. Keynote Address.

Hortense Helper -"Yes. I have a Bachelor's degree in Social Work from Prairie Pine State College. I finished last May."

Dr. Mann -"Well, my dear Ms. Helper, what is it that makes you want to go into teaching if you have training in social work?"

Hortense Helper -"It's a ... sort of a long story, Dr. Mann. Are you sure you want to hear it?"

Dr. Mann -"My dear Ms. Helper, the College of Education has an extremely long waiting list for admission to our program. We must be very careful of the motivation and credentials of those who seek entrance to it. And since you are asking to change professional fields after considerable investment in your training, I think I must inquire as to your reasons for such a change."

Hortense Helper -"Well, alright, Dr. Mann. I don't know if I can make myself clear, though. Have you ever been in a small town?"

Dr. Mann -"Why, uh, yes! I go fishing in one sometimes."

Hortense Helper -"Then it might be hard for you to understand what goes on in one. I thought I knew small-town living. After all, I'd been in one four years going to Prairie Pine. But there was a lot I didn't understand, as it turned out.....

"After I graduated last year, I spent a long time looking for a job. Jobs weren't easy to find. But then I got one, at the Welfare Office in Lone Tree. I was so excited. And when I first met my boss and the others in the office, I thought they really cared about people. I just knew I would be able to really do things in that job.

"But that wasn't the way it turned out. I tried to help my clients. I tried to really take on the social issues in the community, too, just like we'd learned in school. But nothing turned out the way it was supposed to."

Dr. Mann -"My poor Ms. Helper! It certainly sounds like things were very bad in .... what did you call it? ..... Lone Tree?"

Hortense Helper -"Bad isn't the half of it! People were so nosy, and meddling. Nothing I did was without criticism. People acted like they had some right to know what I did with my clients. And the clients themselves! They wouldn't open up, so I couldn't even use the clinical skills I learned in school. And I had to carry everything. There were no other services at all in the town. I complained to my boss, and while I was telling him, he seemed sympathetic -- like he cared about the people. But then he was always with the same people who run everything, the doctor, the hospital administrator. They decided everything; I never got in on anything. They never wanted any change. They liked living ten years in the past."

Dr. Mann -"Why it certainly sounds like that was a difficult situation to work in."

Hortense Helper -"Difficult? It was very hard work. But I wouldn't have minded the work at all . . . but people weren't grateful for anything. They didn't seem to care about their own problems. For example, we had spent a lot of time in school learning our responsibilities about social justice and how to bring about change when people are being discriminated against. I'd been in Lone Tree a long time -- almost four months -- when I just couldn't stand it anymore, that is, the way the Chicano children were being treated in the schools. Anybody could have seen the prejudice. It didn't take much looking. My boss seemed very cool to my ideas though. So I got hold of a list of the parents of all the Chicano kids, and after a lot of hassle, a priest agreed to let me borrow a church basement for a meeting. I wrote letters to all the parents, asking them to come to a meeting, (on my own time) to write a protest petition to the school superintendent and maybe march in front of the school. After all that work and trouble, the Saturday for the meeting came and .... guess what ...... nobody, absolutely nobody showed up. Those parents just didn't care what was happening to their kids!

"Lots of other things happened, too. But it's so frustrating to talk about it. I tried so hard. I worked there almost a whole year! And what is there to show for it. Not much. And that's why I want to get my teacher's certificate."

Dr. Mann -"I can see how hard it was, Ms. Helper. But do you really think there's no problem in the school?"

Hortense Helper -"Of course not, Dr. Mann. I read the newspapers. But I got to see a lot of the teachers and the school in Lone Star. At least, they were able to do some things! They helped some kids! People knew what teachers were supposed to do, and so did the teachers. They had some respect from the people."

Dr. Mann -"Well, Ms. Helper. I will enroll you for five courses in the College of Education. I feel sure you will make an excellent teacher. Let's see, you'll take Ed. 01 - Philosophy of Education; Ed. 943, 944, and 945 - Secondary Methods in Social Science teaching; and Phys. Ed. 41 - Karate for the Classroom! Now I believe that's all we need to do today, Ms. Helper. Goodbye."

Hortense Helper -"Goodbye, Dr. Mann. And thank you so much."

****

A caricature? Perhaps--but what Hortense didn't know, didn't understand, and obviously had not been prepared for in her real-life practice situation is not atypical of the social service professional trained in urban or urban-oriented programs.

We would like to examine with you this morning some of the more obvious deficiencies portrayed in this interview under the headings of rural context, rural service systems, the worker role, and educational program.

Rural Context

Hortense, in her brief statement, demonstrated little awareness that each intervention takes place within a specific context which both forms and informs that act, making it unique. And her appreciation of the rural uniqueness is notable by its absence. She is not alone. The rural context, only now being rediscovered by professional practitioners and educators, has been treated in one of two ways, both of which demean people who live there: (1) the "noble savage syndrome" which posits rural citizens as all God-fearing, somewhat simple pillars of undifferentiated hope--a world populated with John-boys. The world of Steinbeck and Faulkner is forgotten. The effect of this viewpoint is to dismiss the human problems of rural America as minor--or at least easily solvable with the reservoir of strength which exists there. (2) The second approach is described by

J. S. Dhillon (Florida A & M) as "denial of heritage"; people tend to be ashamed of their rural roots and deny their birthright as if living in a rural area is something to be ashamed of. It is worn as a red badge of courage to indicate, if you are modestly successful, that you were raised in a rural area--"But I got out as soon as I was old enough," and phrases like "he acts like a farmer," etc. The implication of this thought process is that rural persons are somewhat less than full-fledged human beings, somehow defective or at least not on a par on the evolutionary scale with their urban counterparts, and one can demonstrate one's superiority by getting out.

This curious combination of romance and denial short changes the complexity of the rural context, but it does serve to highlight one significant facet that many of you already well know--rural is more than a census definition or a geographic designation. It defines a life style, a mentality, and thus "rural populations" are not only found in East End and White Owl, but whole neighborhoods of South San Francisco or the south side of Chicago are equally "rural."

It is not our purpose this morning to make a demographic, ecological, cultural, historical, social systems, and social power analysis of the rural community. We do that in the classroom at considerable length. Here it would be redundant, and many of you are at least as well qualified as we to address those foundation areas. What we would like to do is examine the interrelationship of that context within our specialty, the education of practitioners for rural service delivery systems.

Human Service Delivery System

Hortense experienced a frustrating and substantial failure to understand the extent and nature of the human services delivery system in the rural community. She apparently had been affected by some of the mythology propounded about the scarcity and simplicity of the system and her own expectations may have biased her perception of what is actually there. Myths abound about the number, sophistication and nature of services. Although much of the literature about the rural community belabors of the scarcity of resources, the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, School of Social Work, catalogued 99 separate human service organizations serving a 16-county rural region in east Tennessee. In the 10,000 population central Missouri County where we have our project, 23 separate human service agencies (all with paid staff) were invited to join a Council of Agencies that we tried to form.

Given this data, why do the myths persist? What are the factors that complicate analysis of the rural service system?

Complexity seems to derive from two essential sources: (1) the recognition that there are three distinct yet overlapping classifications of human service organizations in the rural community; and (2) the complicated relationships that exist among the providers in the three types of organizations that contribute to corporate collusion in maintenance and support of them, yet permit selective denial of the existence of many. A published inventory of community resources, therefore, often fails to include mention of two of the three types of organizations.

What are these three categories? They may be defined as formal systems, informal systems, and, what we have chosen to call "natural" systems.

A formal service system is lodged in formal organization. Formal organization implies a relatively permanent and relatively complex, discernible, interacting social system composed of hierarchically arranged components, designed to rationally attain specified goals with greatest economy. It is established to achieve unitary, specified and articulated goals and objectives. Rural examples are the County Welfare Office, the County Health Department, the county extension service, and so forth.

The second type of human service system, the informal system, implies the existence of a formal system. In the rural context, informal systems develop often to reconcile the necessity for locality relevance in formal organizations that provide services mandated from a regional or state hierarchical level. Informal services may constrict or augment the mandated functioning of formal organizations. Examples include: the welfare office which delivers a de facto marital counseling service to one segment of the populace under guise of the mandated "child welfare" program; the County Health Department which maintains a newborn layette closet from which it dispenses high chairs, cribs, nursing sets and diapers to certain needy individuals; the sheriff's office which supplies fresh-cut meat to poor families from the deer killed in traffic accidents or confiscated from poachers. A significant informal system is the rural school, which has a mandated primary purpose of education, and a mushrooming ancillary service system dealing in health and dental care, psychological evaluations, recreational and leisure time activities for all ages, and free hot meals to poor children, and in many towns, to the elderly as well.

Managers of the informal systems are generally paid professionals, often the same professionals who operate the formal systems. When the service systems they sanction have developed to constrict the formal mandate of the agency, they obviously would not communicate this accommodation to persons in the vertical hierarchy outside the local communtity. Fear or mistrust of the regional or state office also inhibits mention of those which actually augment service programs. Thus, the "law of the county" portrayed in movies and TV shows of rural genre does have relevance in assessing and cataloguing informal service systems of a particular locale.

Finally, in rural communities, there are natural service systems. The term "natural system" is rooted in and takes sanction from those systems natural to man, i.e., the family, the conglomerate of related families or tribe, and offshoots of tribal customs and rites, such as religion. The rural church, long recognized as a human service center, still spawns many "natural service systems," such as friendly visiting networks, counseling and referral services managed by an individual or family within a community, educational workshops, relief nursing care, and crisis intervention helping. These phenomena have the essential characteristics of a social system: structural and functional interdependency of parts, identifiable boundaries, supra- and sub-system relationships. Aspects of social agency organization are discernible in eligibility criteria and referral and screening procedures in some of these systems. A blend of knowledge and values consistent with social work practice is evident in some systems where the reward structure for the caregivers is not dependent upon the gratitude offered by the client consumer but is lodged in a supra-system, like a church or civic/social organization or kinship group which accords public recognition and support to the enterprise and high status in the systematic network to the caregiver. Witness the small town accolade: "Everybody turns to Aunt Greta if they're in trouble." Managers of natural systems are generally nonsalaried volunteers.

And now we turn to an examination of the nature of the relationships among the various providers in these three types of service systems. Several factors characteristic of rural communities mediate these relationships and render them most complex: First, the convergence of roles in a single individual multiplies the number of ways in which providers are connected with one another. Aunt Greta may be the matriarch of an extended family grouping, the board chairperson of the Human Development Corporation, a county welfare commission member, an owner of the local savings and loan association, and the mother of the elected legislator from the area.

Secondly, status considerations of the professional helpers, i.e., the administrative representatives of formal service organizations, lead to a vested interest in protecting their territory from impinging informal or natural systems. Sometimes then, they must officially ignore or deny the existence of these systems.

Third, vertical integration pressure on the local branches of state and federal agencies often generates the development of informal systems within the formal organization as indicated in the preceding discussion. Thus, some rural welfare offices do not actually distinguish the functions of service workers over income maintenance workers although the manual clearly does, and the agency bureaucracy thinks it has a dual career line. Another common example is the agency's formula for doling out donations made to the office. Recipients are often clientele ineligible for the formal services of the agency or who have low priority on the official service roster.

A fourth source of complex relationships among rural providers is the attitudinal response to life in a small community system. People need to maintain at least a superficial facade of friendship and camaraderie with one another in spite of very real and often profound disagreement with an individual's values and behavior. Verbal confrontation is avoided, unless there is identifiable group support for the position taken. Thus, community leaders may accurately judge incompetent administrators of formal human service organizations. But rather than launch a singular attack to remove the person from a bureaucratic system that transcends the local community, a competing informal or natural system may be generated to compensate for the deficiencies that his or her behavior and policies create. Often, the administrative target of such competing systems is in collusion with the strategy. As long as he does not provoke a direct confrontation about it, he does not risk the possibility of censure.

Lastly, there is a fifth factor which perpetuates "hidden" rural resources and renders them inaccessible to assessment. Some human service systems are operating in violation of statute or ordinance but the service is acknowledged by the community as necessary, or the service provider has high status through other roles and those in his systemic networks choose to support or not to challenge this particular endeavor. One example is day care situations in rural communities. Another is the private taxi system that springs up in the absence of public transportation, in which the owner cannot afford to meet the standards required for legal operation. Abuses within these systems are common because, although everyone knows of their existence, they fall outside any regulatory body. High fees for service, differentially computed by race or friendship ties, inconsistent provision of the service, some physical dangers in the operating procedures comprise the price the community is willing to pay rather than face the possibility of losing it altogether.

The professional social worker new to the rural scene is thus faced with a human service delivery system that defies current textbook description and analysis. The professional who would enter this system to enhance its positive contribution to rural health and welfare must be prepared by knowledge, attitudes, and values to conduct a process of data collection and assessment that will produce an objective array of hypotheses for testing. The role of the rural social worker should be determined by the assessment of the specific system operant in the particular locale. Although a number of roles and strategies for change are possible, several authors have emphasized the enhancement of the total system as the logical approach of the trained professional. The New Mexico Project of Libo in the late 1960s, and the Kiesler model in Minnesota in the early 60s were prime examples of this approach. And now let us look at some of the dimensions of professional role.

Professional Role

A conceptualization of professional role consistent with the foregoing suggestions of focus on the totality of community and enhancement of all community caregivers has been advanced through the workshops and publications of the CSWE Task Force on Rural Social Work and has been outlined in the last two editions of the Encyclopedia of Social Work.

Hortense seemed to have a one-dimensional view of role of the rural social worker that led to her impatience and frustration with the rural context and clientele. In her concern with what "they" were like, she might never have considered what she represented to the rural community.

In a world that values self-support and self-help and suspicions the motives of "the Feds" in any government program of human service, a public service employee enters the arena with an inherent credibility gap. And, in a world where sex roles are rigidly proscribed and femininity and virility become caricatured through tangible displays of their attributes (the rifles prominently hung in the rear window of the pickup, the fetish of the beauty parlor ritual ascribed to by the housewives), a single, educated, career-oriented, professional woman in something called social work is deviance personified! If Hortense had been a male, acceptance of the therapeutic function without benefit of frock or collar wouldn't have been much better.

The establishment of credibility as a potentially helpful person must become the first goal of the rural practitioner in the entry phase of process. Achieving that goal requires continued attention to the territoriality of the caregiver-colleagues and to the principle of confidentiality as it is played out in the rural environment. The caregivers--regardless of ability or commitment to service--guard access to potential clientele and to the native resources requisite to helping such clientele. To gain their trust, the worker's early demonstration of services should meet these criteria: usefulness to other caregivers in their work with clientele; nonthreatening to their professional identity, and tangibly evident to those to whom they are accountable. The subroles of the rural social worker most applicable to these criteria are broker and technical expert in process. The brokering of services outside the local community (legal aid, mental health, etc.) is often a major asset of the professionally trained social worker who keeps current on all regional and state programs. Sometimes, the brokering of services within the community (bringing natural systems into a plan for a particular individual who would not normally have been known to them) is more possible for the social worker who has taken the trouble to do the total community assessment of the service system than it is for the resident caregivers who have the status barriers and other inhibitors previously described. The role of technical expert in process can often be offered to caregivers who mention goals they have for particular clientele or projects but do not have the knowledge of "...how to get there from here." When process requires negotiation of large translocal systems or use of specialized skills not usually possessed by rural caregivers (such as grant writing or brokering of grant-writing experts) the technical expert role is well-accepted by the caregivers. Both these roles permit a respectable distance between the social worker and the dual recipients of the services: the client-consumer and the caregiver-provider. The same two roles are often the basis of credibility with the worker's own direct service clientele, however, as they serve to demonstrate worker effectiveness without the requirement of great client risk. The client is free to divulge only that information required to obtain the brokerage or the technical expertise and remains free to reject either role if not satisfactorily performed.

The third subrole to be negotiated on the ladder of credibility in the rural community can be conceptualized as that of consultant. The target of worker consultation could be either a caregiver-colleague or a potential consumer of a social change process--organizational change or therapeutic change. In the case of the caregiver-colleague, the request for advice--no matter how minor--on the management of a client problem of the caregiver is an indication of the growing trust of the person in the worker. Because the request may have hidden undertones, such as checking an already implemented decision against the worker's hypothesis or testing the worker's judgement of the caregiver's ability in a specific instance, restraint in advice-giving is always warranted. Demonstration of interest and concern and supportive techniques frequently meet the need when a display of knowledge or technical skill would not. When the consumer of the service is a potential client of the worker, we think it useful to distinguish a consultant role from that of manager of a change process. Until the client-consumer has had ample time and demonstration of credibility through the roles outlined above, the worker is well-advised to "play it cool" by not assuming the intention to contract and thereby limiting the client's freedom to accept or reject the offering. For an individual client to consult with a worker about personal problems or for a community leader to consult about a community social problem carries inherent risk not easily borne by the rural resident. The consultant role allows production of data the client considers relevant to the situation, and leaves choice of acceptance of the response to him. The mutuality and accountability factors are of a different degree in consultation with a client as opposed to managing a change process with a client.

The fourth subrole which the rural community will tolerate from the rural social worker, once worthiness has been developed through the lower risk roles, is that of manager of social change. Within the change process, sex roles drastically affect the clinical relationship, and other change relationships as well.

In the case of the female worker with the female client, client expectations are for nurturing, mothering, or for friendship. Age and experience differential between worker and client account for the difference in expectations. Although intimacy in general is difficult for the rural resident with strangers, intimate exchanges among women are commonplace, as friends, or relatives. However, role analogs for professional women in the rural community are confined to nurse, teacher, or extensions of maternal roles, school board member, professional girl scout leader, etc. Thus, anything but a supportive, non-demanding therapeutic strategy is bound to jar the female client's expectations of the worker and the helping process.

The mild considerations in the female worker-female client configuration can become major at the goal determination phase of process if the worker does not appreciate the kinds of pressures for female conformity that have shaped the self-concept and criteria for judging self-worth of the female rural resident.

The female worker-male client constellation is quite another phenomenon. To place oneself in a subservient role to a woman, to identify oneself as in need of help from a women, goes against the grain of definition of manhood in the rural context. Certain subject areas are taboo to discuss with women, sometimes even with one's spouse. Accepting advice or counseling from a woman on a male client's conduct of his vital life roles, fatherhood or "spousehood," is so threatening an idea as to become frequently insurmountable. Thus, the step of process most difficult to negotiate between the female worker and male client is that of contracting. The basic requisites for contract are that the client be willing and able to enter into the mutual agreement to adhere to a mutual plan with mutual investment toward mutual goals. For the male client to achieve the willingness necessary to contract may in fact become the entire goal of the change process. By that is meant that for a male client to be able to surrender the rigid definition of manhood and womanhood that holds him prisioner from change without help, may be all the help required in social treatment.

The male social worker presents the rural resident with a paradox. What is he doing by performing a predominantly feminine-oriented function, i.e., serving the troubled, the poor, the ill, etc., if he is truly masculine? He lacks the prestige of the doctor. The minister, the closest analog to a professional helper, has the obvious excuse of religion to account for his deviance. But the male worker's motivation is suspect. His salary and professional credentials place him on a par with school principals, superintendents, or other such administrators. Administration and organization are respectable occupations for a masculine male, not so direct service functions.

Thus, the female client tries to place him in the role of minister and expects protection, support, moral guidance, and clear direction as to what she should do. On the other hand, intimate verbal interchange with a male who is not shielded by "the collar" is sufficiently unsettling as to provoke coy, pseudo-seductive maneuvers designed to clarify role. The entry phase, or intake step of process, is thus the critical one in this worker-client configuration.

With the male client, the male worker must also prove his masculinity before the client can truly enter into mutual formulation of change goals. The client cannot risk imitation or identification with the worker if the worker's own sexual identity departs from rural values.

The fifth and final subrole of the rural worker is that of advocate, paradoxically the very role that neophytes try to assume while still new on the rural scene. Effective advocacy requires a sound reservoir of relationships if it is to achieve its goal for a particular client in a rural community and not jeopardize either the client or the worker's continued functioning. The client has the right to information about the degree of risk and chances for success of an advocacy strategy before he authorizes a worker to act in his behalf. No social worker not thoroughly familiar with the complexities of the rural service system can provide that data, and thus advocacy must await credibility and knowledge of locale.

Finally, no summary of the impact of rural culture on the professional role would be complete without mention of the principle of confidentiality. The rural "grapevine" does exert powerful influence on both clients and caregivers. Confidentiality in its strict sense is fictional in such an environment through formal and informal systems precisely because the community communication network does not value confidentiality as highly as it does mutual support in time of trouble. When the referral source of a particular client is a representative of a natural system, they are entitled to feedback on the outcome of the referral for the same reasons that formal organizations are. However, the social worker must recognize the danger of providing indiscriminate data to the many networks that may converge in the one natural system. Explanations that are externally consistent among themselves but differentiated according to the particular focus of the recipient of the information are mandatory. The worker can be certain that whoever shares in the receipt of professional data will discuss it with many systemic partners and all will examine it minutely for evidence of duplicity.

Upon that cheerful note, let us look now at what professional education should encompass to prepare this kind of rural practitioner.

Education for Rural Practice

It has long been recognized that the urban casework model did not mix well with the functions to be performed by social workers in small towns, hamlets, camps and farms of rural America. By 1933, a black, rural social worker named Josephine Brown was writing with confidence about the "generalist practitioner" as model of choice. And ever since, the idea has been, in one form or another, periodically rediscovered.

Currently in social work education, "generalist" is a term that is widely bandied, supported or condemned. It is called a combination of methods, a specialization, a new method, a stance, etc., by various proponents not only within the profession but in individual faculties as well. Pincus and Minahan deftly sidestep this internecine bloodletting by focusing on "practice". While perhaps sufficient for their purposes, this still does not satisfy the need for definition. We reject the notion of generalist as method and define it, rather, in terms of goal. Thus our operational definition is as follows:

> A generalist social worker assesses, within the framework of professional values, social phenomena in their various systemic ramifications and, based upon that assessment, identifies and intervenes at whatever systemic levels are efficient and effective within the internal and external resources of the action system to bring about desired social change. (See Mermelstein and Sundet, "Social Work Education for Rural Program Development," and "Social Work Ombudsman: A Role of the Rural Generalist Practitioner" for further explication.)

The goal and the target for change are not predetermined by worker method of specialization but by nature of the phenomena addressed and the activities of partners in the action system. The repertoire of strategies implied in this definition is obviously substantial, but there is a unity which orders worker knowledge and technique. The unity is derived from two sources: the ordering of part-whole relationships through a systems orientation, and a common process of social intervention based on a step-wise progression of scientific methodology.

Within the framework of generalist process, and this organization of phenomena, and range of strategies are a series of functional categories of interventions and a configuration of characteristic subroles which are carried out simultaneously. The uniqueness of the generalist is not only the multiplicity of concurrent roles but that the roles complement one another and effectiveness and credibility in any specific role is largely determined by performance of other roles. This, then, is a summary of the preceding section of this paper. The rural generalist, in particular, is clinician, organizer, program developer, technical expert and educator in a given working day.

The educational preparation of this rural social worker requires adjustments in traditional teaching methodologies and content. The long-standing dichotomy between "knowledge" as embodied in the didactic classroom and "practice" isolated in practicum experiences is even less functional in preparing the rural worker. Integration of foundation and practice-knowledge and activity skills requires devices such as team teaching, field based seminars, modular course construction, and instructor demonstration. A renewed emphasis on collaborative attitudes is needed, not only among faculty but systemwide. The apprenticeship model, the student as naive disciple, allows for neither the transmission of required knowledge nor acculturation to the multifaceted role.

Content, too, must be adjusted to reflect the eclectic knowledge base required. A program focus on deviance and psychopathology may prepare the student to label phenomena; it does not prepare the rural practitioner for the tasks of behavioral and systems change which are inherent in the generalist function.

Because of the high degree of professional risk involved in autonomous rural practice, the structure and progression of the student's learning must encourage motivation to risk while concomitantly reducing the probability of nonsuccess.

Classroom course design can flow from this principle although it has been more routinely applied to the practicum field experience in social work curricula.

The introduction of the student to discrete skills which flow from didactic material, either foundation or practice theory, can be begun as a component of classroom instruction through the use of laboratory and workshop simulation techniques. This allows the instructor to isolate one configuration of specific activities, skills or knowledge for the student's concentrated attention without having to manipulate all the variables that would be inherent simultaneously in the real community situation, as for example, focusing on the function of committee aide to a chairman of a Council of Aging without concurrently having to address the problem of the family disorders which motivate that chairman to serve.

A further consideration for the classroom teacher in determining content and methodology is the fact that the exercise of some essential generalist techniques is most often totally foreign to the student. The students frequently have a frame of reference for work with individuals, families and small groups based upon their prior life experience even if they have had no professional experience. But the classroom instructor is constantly faced with the problem of making program developer, technical expert, and educator "real". To do this requires the ample use of detailed case examples. The paucity of rural-focused materials in written and audiovisual form forces the teacher to create such from his own practice experience and systemic accumulation of student records. Perhaps it should be noted here that a principle of social work practice already pointed out, namely adaptation of the process to locale, applies as well to the teaching methodology employed. Thus, case records, examples, illustrations, etc., which are drawn from the school's geographic locale are much more effective in enhancing the "realness" of the educational content.

The ability to conceptualize and to systematically apply practice principles and scientific methodology to every professional endeavor must be stressed universally throughout the curriculum. Thus, practicum is more than "experience" and to design a field instruction model, which logically facilitates education for autonomous rural practice within the generalist concept, certain principles must adhere: (1) The field instructor will serve as role model of social intervention. (2) Accountability to client-consumer (community), supra-systems, peer group, and the specific procedures for maintenance of accountability is built into field unit structure. (3) Autonomy of practice and its essential ingredients must be integral to the field experience. (4) Opportunity for collaboration with other professionals, other disciplines, consultants, etc., is provided. (5) Observational and analytic opportunities in host agency decision-making processes and analogous opportunities in community-wide decision-making processes are made available. (6) The field instructor demonstrates the role of professional learner on the assumption that continuous professional learning is the essential hallmark of any profession.

A field instructional program predicated upon the above principles encompasses the following subjects: assignments, approach to supervision, and student-teaching relationships.

1. Assignments are directed to diverse target systems, with flexibility in the parameters of interventive action, i.e., where the student stops in his systemic interventions is not confined to the initial problem definition but is the product of the progression of successful interventions, and yet the assignments are discrete enough so that the student is able to see the impact of his intervention and obtain the necessary reinforcement. Assignments naturally require a coalition of professional effort in which the instructor is colleague--not "master" (after-the-fact).

2. Supervision predicated in this model is substantially different from that found in the apprenticeship model, since both the instructor and the student are actively engaged in the same intervention and evaluation of performance and suggestions for improvement are mutual responsibilities. The instructor's performance is as subject to critical analysis as the student's. The specific benefit of this procedure is that authority of regulation (grading) is rapidly supplanted by authority of competence (observed performance) ability.

3. Types of unit relationships that develop in this role demonstration model differ markedly from the apprenticeship.

> Openness of student to critical appraisal from each other, camaraderie, protectiveness toward the group, respect for each other and for the instructor, high morale--all seem to flow from the mutuality of risk-taking inherent in the model.

There are three principal resource requirements for this kind of field instruction, none of them easy to come by, but all well worth expending the resources to obtain. The first is a field instructor who is willing to take the risk of being a role model--and intelligent enough to recognize that he is, in any case, such a model, albeit a negative model in many instances. Competence, confidence, and communication skill are the distinguishing marks of such a teacher. The second requirement is a sympathetic organization environment. There is little doubt that the nonbureaucratic organization with its higher degree of flexibility and less rigidly defined roles and procedures makes the instructional task easier. However, even in traditional structures, a rural generalist practicum can be successfully carried out if the agency has both a commitment to innovation and to sustaining the change effort over time, and the practicum activities further the ultimate agency goal.

The final requirement, no less crucial than the previous two, is an educational institution prepared to support, financially as well as morally, both the process and the professional risk-taking inherent in generalist practice. All too frequently, our faithful companion, Chancellor Tonto, when faced with a war party from the town or the comptroller's office, gives us that "what do you mean, 'we,' Paleface?" response.

Content and methodology in educating for rural practice have long been neglected, ignored, and/or denied. The uncritical adoption of traditional big-city graduate school curricula, in watered-down form, has ignored the fundamental principle of individualization.

To summarize then, little Ms. Hortense Helper was ill-served by her education--it was not "relevant," it was not "apt," it did not capitalize on her interest and motivation. She understood little of her practice context or the service delivery complex in which she was to survive and grow; she was oblivious to the complexity of her function and its multifaceted roles, and she had probably been educated in a model, borrowed whole cloth, from an urban-metropolitan graduate school.

Which leads us to this conference--you don't want to see Hortense coming out of your schools and into your agencies--that is why you are here. But to prevent such situations you must address the rural context, rural service delivery, and educational context and methodology.

Now, what is there left to do--we've just given you all the answers! We've just, in the categorical imperative, told you what rural is, what practice is, and how to educate. Some of you disagree with almost everything we just proposed--all of you take exception with some part of it--or at least we hope you do. Because we have been stating questions rather than answers. We have begun to work toward our answers, but they are ours and yours must be yours.

For example--what is rural? Is it the sociologist's "traditional society"? Is it the demographer's "under 2,500"? Does it exist at all in the technology of mass communication and prepackaged culture? And how does the variable of ethnicity affect or define rurality? If that set of questions is not complex enough for you, let us move on to practice.

Is the generalist model appropriate to rural practice, and if so, what do you mean by it? In a Canadian Symposium on Rural Social Work at the University of Regina this year, the clear message was that locality development should be the principal emphasis with clinical functions as a sub-specialty of relatively minor import. For others, the answer is very different.

And what do the agencies, the consumer of the schools' products want in a social worker? What are the expectations for performance, both task and competence? And lest we forget, what are the rural client's expectations?

Finally, what specific competencies are needed by rural social workers both at baccalaureate and master's levels? What is the difference between them?

These and a multitude of other questions are those which you need to address. The answers must be yours. If not, if you uncritically accept ours, you are violating the principle of program, be it education or service, "fitting the environment." Good luck!

EDUCATING FOR SITUATIONAL AWARENESS: USE OF THE LABORATORY*

Any use of the laboratory method in teaching social work practice needs to be designed for the particular situation. In sharing this technique as it is used at the University of South Dakota I am sharing how we deliver a particular part of our curriculum. To use it in your situation you need to use your creativity and design for your situation. Perhaps by understanding how the laboratory method has been used in one school you will get some ideas as to how it can be used in your school.

In designing laboratory experience you first need to look at the goals of the program, at those of the particular course and at the content taught in that course. With this understanding you can then begin to design laboratory experience.

The South Dakota program prepares workers for rural practice. We have arrived at our goals in part by looking at the nature of practice in the state and determining what is expected of workers. The BSW in our state must work with a minimum of support, be able to be very flexible and use a great deal of creativity. They must develop judgement to know what they can do and what they need to refer or obtain help in doing. They need to be aware of what they know and how to apply that knowledge. This must be developed on campus in the laboratory before the field experience. Thus our lab is designed in part to help the student become more self-directing.

In looking at the particular course there is a need to determine what skills or outcomes should result from the educational experience. The course to which the laboratory experience being discussed is attached is the second practice course. The student already has developed some interactional skill, some understanding of the problem-solving process and has been introduced to basic social work knowledge and values. The second practice course teaches the situational focus of social work (rural). It focuses on resource use and development and working in and with small communities. It is expected that the course will help the student develop his problem-solving skills and his ability to work with a small task group. An understanding of the community as a social system is another goal.

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*Excerpts from a presentation made by Louise C. Johnson, Director, Social Work Program, University of South Dakota, at the Rural Curriculum Development Conference, Fresno, California, March 17, 1978.

The course has eight or nine lectures which provide a conceptual base for the laboratory activity. The students are divided into groups of four to six persons who work together as a task group. The first activity of each group is to review material gathered about the community (the town in which the University is located) by previous classes. Each group looks at a different aspect of the community, economic, political, etc. They share the findings with the total class. They then decide what additional information needs to be gathered and again working in small groups go into the community to obtain some of the missing information.

This experience helps the students develop assessment skills. They develop interviewing skills as they interview community persons.

After gathering and assessing the information, student groups choose projects related to resource use and development. Groups have carried out such projects as helping prepare for a Title XX hearing, developing a resource bank for an information and referral service and studying the drop-out problem in the high school. As work progresses students are asked to identify stages in the problem-solving process and to look at their own small group process. Thus other learning is made more visible to them.

The laboratory is activity which gives real experience in using the concepts taught in the course. Yet the situation is more structured and controlled than in the field experience. It teaches the situational aspect of social work before the students deal with "live clients." Because the laboratory is designed to require students to make decisions and test out plans, it seems to enhance a learning process which results in a self-directing worker.

ROUTES TO RURAL PRACTICE*

Game Purpose and Design

ROUTES TO RURAL PRACTICE was designed for use in courses dealing with rural social work practice. Its purpose is to raise questions, stimulate creative thinking, and generate student discussion of what social work in rural areas is all about. The game is designed as a board game in order to facilitate such discussion, as students literally have to form a group--sit facing each other around a small table, exchange information and develop a consensus about game procedures, ask and answer each other's questions--in order to play the game.

The game board simulates a model of a career in rural social work. The career is divided into four phases: deciding to go, how to prepare, entry and adjustment, and the long haul--a career in rural practice. As they move around the board, players answer and discuss questions related to these four phases. Each side of the board represents one phase of the social worker's career. The game also provides an opportunity for students to raise their own questions through the use of "write one question" and "crackerbarrel classroom" squares.

Game Directions

Time for play: 2 hours.
Number of players: 6-8. Can use several game boards for use in larger class settings.
Materials needed for play: 3 x 5 notecards, pencils, set of dice.
Materials needed for constructing game: 3 x 5 notecards, visual illustrations of rural life for game board, poster board.

1. Explain purpose of the game and ask each player to write one crackerbarrel classroom card. These cards are then placed under the crackerbarrel classroom squares on the game board. The cards should reflect questions about rural social work which players would like to see discussed during the game.

2. Each player should place a move marker (coin, safety pin, whatever) on the start square. Play begins by players deciding who goes first. Players move around the board in turn by drawing a card corresponding to the section of the board on which their move marker is located, answering the question on the card, then throwing the dice and moving ahead.

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*By Lynne Clemmens Morris, School of Social Work and Human Services, Eastern Washington University, Cheney, Washington.

3. Players landing on crackerbarrel classroom squares draw and answer one of their classmates' questions located under those squares.

4. Players landing on "write one question" squares should follow those directions and then move ahead two squares as a bonus move. The next player then answers that question rather than drawing a "rural career phase" card.

5. If there are not enough question cards, players should begin to make up their own.

6. The game is "won" by the first player to cross the finish line. That player also should answer the "final question" card. Players may wish to continue their group discussion, however, and might wish to deal with question cards which were not drawn during the game.

7. If several groups are playing the game, a facilitator should be designated for each group. If one group plays, the instructor may assume a facilitator role. The facilitator should make sure that game rules are clearly understood and observed, and encourage group discussion of players' answers to game cards.

Game Question Cards

Deciding To Go Cards:

What life-style changes would you have to make in moving to a rural area?

What would be some advantages and disadvantages associated with raising children in a rural setting?

State three things which interest you and three things which disinterest you about social work practice in rural areas.

What questions would your spouse raise about moving to a rural area? If unmarried, what problems would you expect to encounter in developing a social life and how might you deal with them?

What types of career opportunities exist for social workers in rural areas? What are the chances for career advancement?

State two questions which you would ask yourself or others in making a decision about accepting a job or field placement in a rural area.

How to Prepare Cards:

How well prepared are you to enter a diverse rural community in which you will have daily contact with persons from all socioeconomic levels, persons from a variety of ethnic and cultural backgrounds, persons with a variety of religious beliefs? What educational experiences might increase your skill in working in a culturally diverse setting?

In the absence of large agency bureaucracies with structured opportunities for supervision, what kind of opportunities could you develop in a rural setting to exchange information and obtain feedback from other practitioners which will help you to increase your professional effectiveness?

How comfortable and skilled are you in moving in and out of multiple roles and relationships in a setting where "clients" and "co-workers" are also friends and neighbors? Can you describe any previous or current life/work experiences in which you have engaged in such multiple role relationships?

What resources will you need in order to "keep up" professionally? How would you go about getting them before and after moving to a rural area?

Two social work educators, Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet, have suggested that traditional teaching methods of lecture-discussion-exam are not functional for preparing autonomous rural generalist social workers. Plan an alternative educational learning experience which will increase your self reliance and ability to function as an independent rural practitioner.

How might you begin to develop skills in interdisciplinary teamwork? What experiences have you had working with human service workers such as teachers, public health nurses, doctors, police, county extension, etc.?

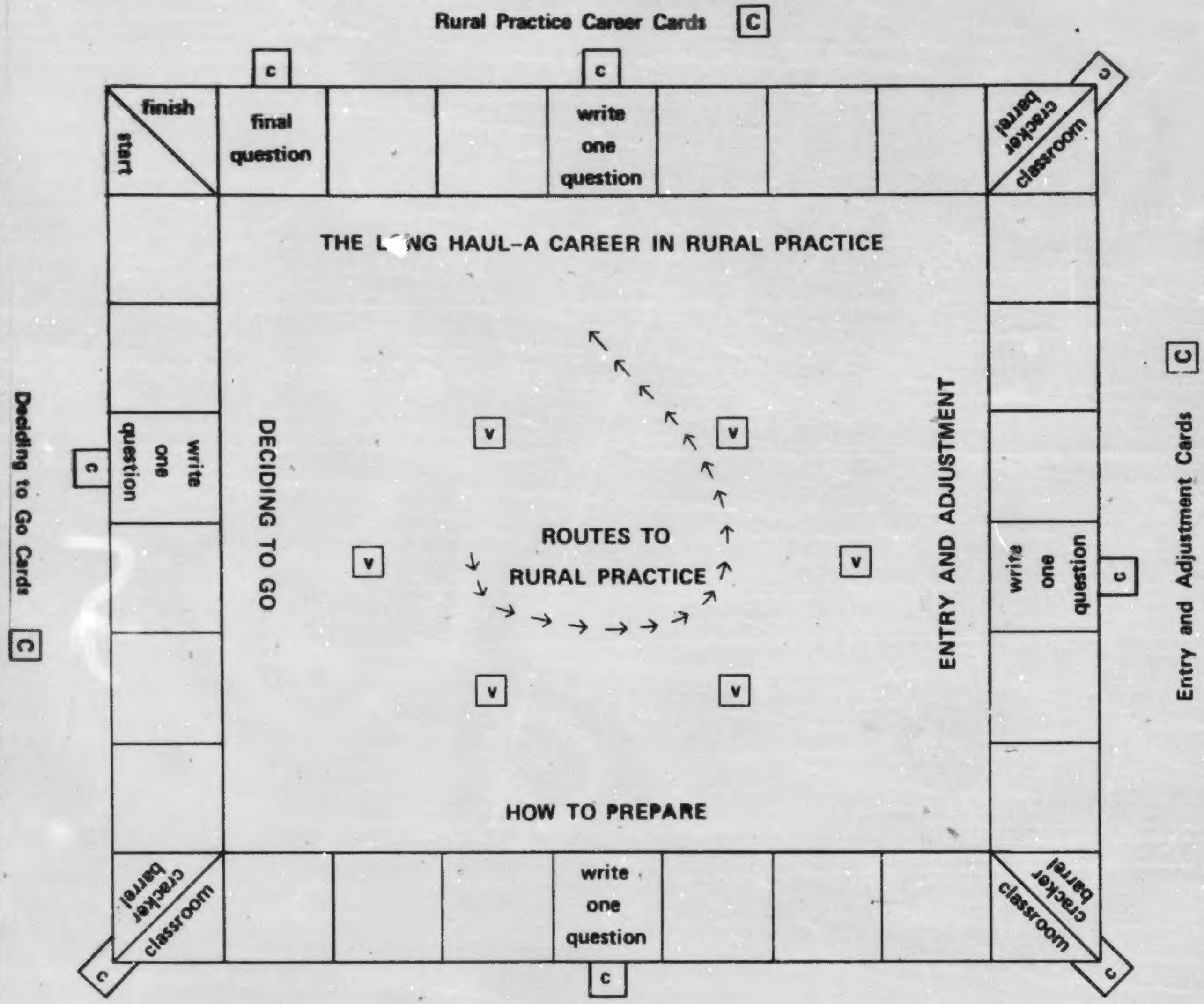
How willing are you to build a personal and professional life which can tolerate close community scrutiny? How compatible is your life-style with living in a fishbowl-type setting?

From the following list of topics, select two about which you would feel comfortable conversing in some rural community social setting: fishing, hunting, logging, farming, trucks, home canning, country music, guns, dogs, other (you specify): ____________________________.

Entry and Adjustment Cards:

Several writers have stressed the importance of community analysis in rural social work practice. State two questions you would want to answer concerning the rural community in which you will be working.

DIAGRAM OF ROUTES TO RURAL PRACTICE
Game Board


Rural Practice Career Cards C
c
c
c
finish
start
final question
write one question
cracker barrel classroom
THE LONG HAUL–A CAREER IN RURAL PRACTICE
Deciding to Go Cards
C
c
write one question
DECIDING TO GO
v
ROUTES TO RURAL PRACTICE
ENTRY AND ADJUSTMENT
write one question
c
C
Entry and Adjustment Cards
HOW TO PREPARE
cracker barrel classroom
write one question
cracker barrel classroom
c
c
c

v = Visual Illustrations of Rural Life

How to Prepare Cards C

C = Locations of Cards

Name three informal gathering places in the community which you would feel comfortable entering and beginning to socialize with people.

Name one local association or organization which you would consider attending or joining.

Who will you need to work with in the rural community and why? Name several human service workers with whom you would want to make contact.

How would you go about identifying the existing power structure in the rural community? Would you expect the power structure to be tight-knit or dispersed? What are the implications of a tight-knit power structure for social work practice?

Your first "client" is a family which has a long history of involvement with community social agencies. In the community's opinion, the family is "hopeless." You are working with the youngest child who has just been suspended from school. How do you begin to work for change in this situation?

You are asked to speak about "mental health" at a local church. State two ideas/themes which you would talk about.

Due to an influx of construction workers and their families, your local school system is experiencing overcrowding. What strategies would you use to convince a financially conservative local school board that a budget increase is justified?

Several writers have stressed the need for social workers to work collaboratively with rural law enforcement. Describe your first meeting with the local sheriff.

You are working with several clients who have occupationally related health problems. They have complained about unsafe working conditions at a local potato-processing plant, the town's major employer. You are new to the community. What are some "first steps" you would take in dealing with this problem?

Rural Practice Career Cards:

You are a member of a statewide agency coalition to secure a greater share of funding for rural social services. What points would you want to make in a discussion with congressional representatives concerning the need for greater federal attention to rural needs?

How well are you coping with the feeling of on-the-job 24 hours a day? How do you "get away from it all"?

Describe your relationships with members of the local business and political leadership after three years of living in the rural community. How will you maintain a friendly working relationship but avoid being co-opted?

State three goals which you as a social worker would like to have accomplished after five years of working in a rural community.

You have been promoted to agency director. What skills will you need? Where and how will you get them?

What strategies have you used to continue your own professional growth and development as a rural social worker?

Your staff has complained of burnout and a sense of professional isolation. How will you, as an agency director, respond to this need?

Picture yourself and your family three-five years after having moved to a rural community. How well will you have adjusted to rural life?

Final Question Card:

Five years after moving to a rural community, you are visited by a student from a school of social work. The student asks, "If you had it to do over, would you choose a career in rural social work?" What would be your response, and why?

Debriefing

Although considerable opportunity for discussion is built into the game, it is useful to allow some time following the game for general discussion. Topics might include questions raised by the game including content areas which students would like to deal with within the course, skill areas which students need to emphasize in terms of preparation for rural practice, agency and community resources whom students might want to contact for additional information.

Linkage to Other Course Activities

The game has usually been played in the second week of a social work practice methods course. Students have done some initial reading on rural social work, and some of the questions are based on the readings. Additional questions could be added by both students and instructors drawn from readings and from field practicum experiences. Since the game is a frame game, a basic structure whose content easily can be altered depending on educational needs, question cards could be added emphasizing particular topic areas such as rural health care or service needs of the rural elderly.

The game also has been used to help students develop questions used in an urban-rural comparison interview conducted with agency staff. A final highly successful follow-up activity has been the use of the visual illustrations on the game board to encourage students to collect visual materials illustrating various aspects of rural practice. As a result, students are engaged in a comprehensive collage-building effort to define visually the multi-dimensional concepts of "rural" and "rural social work."

THE SOCIAL WORK GENERALIST*

Preface: Social Work and Social Welfare

Social welfare concerns itself with those activities which improve the social functioning of people as individuals and the larger society. The field of social welfare may be regarded as a complex of institutions, services, programs and activities to meet the needs of people in a manner that is conducive to development and better social functioning.

Social work brings a comprehensiveness as well as an integrated approach to human needs. While there are many helping professions which contribute to social welfare, social work among them has several distinctive characteristics of its own. In addition, it is an enabling profession that activates those processes or functions of other helping professions to maximize the conditions for human development.

Whether social work narrows its helping role to individual human relationships, or broadens it to larger societal concerns and relationships with systems and institutions, such characteristics as a comprehensive approach to human problems, the integrated attack on areas of need for intervention, the enabling function combined with a professional commitment to the needs of the human person, his dignity, and worth, shape the uniqueness of social work as a profession.

Definition: "Generalist"

A generalist social worker, within the framework of professional value and knowledge, identifies and assesses social phenomena in their various systemic ramifications and based on that assessment differentially intervenes wherever it is efficient and effective for him/her to do so to produce legitimate social change.

Implications

Value--generalist social work assumes that the practitioner has the knowledge of and the ability to reconcile the five operant values systems which are present in any intervention: personal, professional, agency, community, and client. Of particular instructional import are the professional values of a holistic conception of man-in-environment; democratic process and participatory goal setting by all parties to social change; and the historical special commitment of social work to vulnerable groups in society.

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*By Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet, School of Social Work, University of Missouri.

Knowledge--generalist practice is predicated on the realization that there is no one contemporary unified theory which informs all of social work intervention. It is, therefore, necessary that the theoretical stance be flexible, dynamic and eclectic. It is, however, equally important that it be selective and responsive to the dictates of social needs. Central to ordering these multiple knowledge components is: grounding in scientific method as the process of inquiry and decision-making; and general systems theory as the means of marshalling discrete theoretical propositions into effective interventive strategies which address the range of phenomena.

Methodology--generalist methodology speaks specifically and solely to scientific method up to and including choice of action to be taken. Potential interventions actually instituted depend on resources which the worker has or can obtain. The uniquely different aspect of generalist practice is that it does not pre-determine the scope nor locus of a problematic situation based on worker specialty. Thus the generalist is not a combination in equal parts of traditional social work methods nor does it prohibit specialization.

Common Techniques--certain techniques are fundamental to intervention with any phenomena which the generalist may address and are generic to social work practice. Chief among these are the use of symbolic communication and interpersonal relationship skills as means to social change, differential assessment of normal and deviant human behavior, systems linkage in resource development and/or procurement, and use of context to inform and structure strategy.

Competencies

The practice competencies expected of the generalist practitioner can be subdivided into three areas: (1) basic skills; (2) BSW level performance; and (3) MSW level performance.

A. Basic skills: generic competencies which are fundamental to professional practice.

1. The student will demonstrate ability to apply scientific methodology to phenomena addressed by the social work profession.

2. The student's analysis and/or professional interventions will reflect appropriate integration of the respective roles of knowledge and values.

3. The student will demonstrate basic skills in thinking systematically about the social work situation, identifying differential systems requiring professional help and, through direct encounters and relationships with people in finding points of entry for the helping person.

4. The student's professional behavior will evidence appropriate decision-making from an array of interventive strategies commensurate with available professional knowledge and individual competence.

5. The student will demonstrate ability to plan professional activity on the basis of differential assessments including accurate self-assessment.

6. The student's professional behaviors will reflect ability in sustainment of relationship and change over time.

7. The student's productions in classrooms and practicum will incorporate beginning understanding of the process and ramifications of differential choice and application of strategy from an array of potential strategies of intervention with any target system.

8. The academic and professional behavior of the student will approximate the role of professional learner as basis for a life model of learning integral or maturation of the generalist practitioner.

B. BSW level: specific competencies which are associated with the baccalaurate social worker's role of direct service provision.

1. Student will demonstrate the ability to develop social assessments of individuals, small groups and families.

2. Based on professional assessment, the student will be able to engage individuals, families, and small groups in behavioral change contracts.

3. The student will evidence ability to develop a coherent case plan and monitor both worker and client behavior in relation to it.

4. The student will demonstrate acquaintance with some skill in both the common techniques and basic strategies of social treatment.

C. MSW level: predicated on the proposition that competency in generalist practice is cumulative, the above levels (1 and 2) are assumed as foundations for this level. In addition, the MSW student will:

1. Demonstrate assessment ability regarding formal organizations and aggregate population groups.

2. Have an understanding of and beginning skill in formulating plans of intervention appropriate to these systems.

3. Evidence beginning autonomous professional practice skills including initiative and self-direction in executing intervention, in self-evaluation of performance, and in selective use of professional consultation and supervisor.

4. Develop an individualized configuration of knowledge and skills leading to a specific and identifiable practice specialization which can be defined by performance criteria.

CONSIDERATIONS OF AN ADVANCED GENERALIST SPECIALIZATION AT OKLAHOMA UNIVERSITY*

Background and Historical Development

It is impossible to trace every step of development of an idea; nevertheless this section of the paper is such an attempt in regard to the Advanced Generalist specialization in Oklahoma. In Spring, 1975, Dr. Charles Guzzetta consulted with the SSW on curriculum. One of his major points during the consultation visit was that the OUSSW should develop curriculum around the "uniqueness" of Oklahoma. The curriculum should be molded around and congruent with social work practice in Oklahoma.

In response to the Guzzetta consultation, a Curriculum Task Force was formed and charged with defining practice in Oklahoma and pinpointing what was unique about this practice. After nearly a year of intense work, the Task Force (composed of students, faculty and practitioners) concluded "that for most social workers practicing in Oklahoma and similar localities, the major service skills needed are in the therapeutic area and in the coordination and development of community resources" (Curriculum Committee Report, December 17, 1975).

It was further noted that approximately one-third of the students over the past several years have attempted to enroll in both interpersonal and societal practice classes. It was determined that this was an attempt by students to formulate for themselves a combined methods practice orientation.

From these pragmatic leads, the Task Force recommended a combined community/clinical approach to practice. They concluded that the primary concentration for the school should prepare students for this type of practice.

During Spring, 1976, the Curriculum Committee recommended that the new specialization be offered on an experimental basis to 15-20 students during the academic year 1976-77. A practice course was offered during the Fall, 1976, which focused on a combined methods approach. It was quickly recognized by faculty that the type of practice envisioned was more than simply a combined methods approach. Thus a Study Committee on the holistic approach to practice was appointed in 1976. Work on this committee was delayed until the Summer, 1977, due to the 1976-77 accreditation self study. The Study Committee met during Summer, 1977, and a description of the practice envisioned and the educational objectives were drawn up. In addition the name of the specialization was changed from community/clinical (which seemed to connote a combined methods approach) to Advanced Generalist (which is not totally satisfactory either, but seems to be congruent with what's going on in the profession).

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*By Karen Irey, University of Oklahoma, School of Social Work.

Several courses have been implemented on an experimental basis for the 1977-78 academic year. These courses are currently being evaluated and revised and the modifications appear in this text as recommendations for curriculum revision for the Advanced Generalist specialization.

Description of Advanced Generalist Practice*

Advanced Generalist practice is evolving in response to an increased awareness of the interrelatedness of the person (or client system) and the environment. Although social work has always had a unique dual focus--the person and the environment--only recently have we begun to actualize and integrate this dual focus into a practice form. The Advanced Generalist practice is an attempt at this endeavor.

In addition, the Advanced Generalist has been defined as the type of social work practice most suited to the needs of Oklahoma. In 1975, a Curriculum Task Force, composed of a wide range of practitioners, faculty and students, concluded "that for most social workers practicing in Oklahoma and similar localities, the major service skills needed are in the therapeutic area and in the coordination and development of community resources." Therefore the primary focus of the school would be on a specialization with a dual thrust on the individual(s) and the community. The following description is to provide a beginning for such a practice.

Advanced Generalist practice is based on three general beliefs. First is the belief of the interrelatedness of the individual (or client system) and the environment (physical, social, cultural, economical, and political). The Advanced Generalist sees the person and the environment as an ecological system in which all parts are intricately interrelated with one another. He or she knows that all persons are dependent for survival on nutrient and sustaining environments and that there is interdependence between persons and environments. He or she knows that changes in any one part of this ecological system will affect the balance of the whole system.

The second belief is that of balance within the ecological system, that is, balance between a person's needs and capabilities and the supports and demands of an impinging environment. Since the person is always seen as interdependent and interrelated with the environment, there are, then, constant transactions between the person and the environment. Balance in the ecological system is viewed as when there is a good "fit" or match between the person's needs and capabilities and the supports and demands of the environment. Imbalance is when there is a mismatch or a lack of "fit" between the person's capabilities and the environment.

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*Excerpt from a working draft copy of a committee report proposing an Advanced Generalist Specialization at the University of Oklahoma, School of Social Work prepared in March, 1978, provided by Karen Irey.

The third belief is that there is a potential for a mismatch every place where a person transacts with the environment such as in the family, on the job, in the community, in school, and in any other social system. The Advanced Generalist recognizes that every problem can ultimately be traced to a person/environment mismatch and thus problems are reconceptualized as a transactional process between person and environment. It is recognized that people's motivations, skills, and coping capabilities are always interdependent with the environment's preparatory, incentive, and support systems. For example, for a person's material needs to be met through the world of work, there must be job opportunities available and the person must have adequate skills to enable him to take advantage of the opportunity.

These three beliefs point naturally to a model of social work which is directed at improving the match of "fit" between people's needs and capabilities and environmental qualities. Thus action is always directed at supporting and enhancing the capacities of people and influencing the environment to be more responsive to human needs, even though only one may be the center of focus at a time. Also, Advanced Generalist practice should be focused as close to the transaction between person and environment as possible. The Advanced Generalist recognizes that there must be a simultaneous focus on people and environmental qualities, each shapes the other, and the Advanced Generalist's domain is both.

Two Advanced Generalist social work practice principles are derived from the foregoing beliefs:

1. The worker begins with the client (individual, family, group, or community) need, problem, or aspiration and takes it where it leads, considering the total situation, and intervenes at whatever level is necessary to prevent or resolve the problem.

2. The worker seeks to prevent problems by improving the environmental nutrients for sustaining human growth and development whenever possible. If the present environment does not provide opportunities for human growth and enhancement, then the worker seeks to make changes in the environment in order to prevent problems before they occur.

Advanced Generalist Specialization--Objectives

The second-year specialization in Advanced Generalist is based on the generic content of the first year. There is continued emphasis on the social systems framework and its utilization for work with individuals, families, groups, organizations, and communities. In addition, content in the second year emphasizes an ecological systems intervention approach and the process of planned social change. There is consideration of planned social change at all levels of intervention and the determinants for choosing different levels of intervention are examined. Overall, the objective for this specialization is to prepare students to assess social phenomena and all of its systemic ramifications and identify and intervene at whatever level is efficient and effective to bring about the desired social change.

Part I--Cognitive Objectives

1. Students should understand the interrelatedness and interdependence between the person (or client system) and the environment (physical, cultural, social, economical and political). They should know how this relationship is evidenced through social functioning such as in community, family, employment, education, recreation, and citizenship.

2. Students should understand the concept of balance within an ecological system and the relationship of key factors of power, community integration, and self-consciousness (this term incorporates a set of concepts including awareness of self, sense of self in relation to community, self-concept and self-worth) to maintaining, improving, and restoring balance within an ecological system.

3. Students should understand the process of rebalancing an ecological system to bring about desired social change both to prevent and to resolve problems.

4. Students should understand the distinctive societal, cultural, attitudinal, and ideological patterns of the people of the South West, especially rural, Native American, and Black Oklahomans, which contribute to or impede the process of planned social change.

Part II--Affective Objectives

5. Students should be committed to improving social functioning of individuals in a community and they should be committed to promoting more responsiveness to the needs of people in the community from governmental and nongovernmental organizations.

Part III--Behavioral Objectives

6. Students should be able to start with a client (system) need, problem, and aspiration, make an assessment considering the total situation, take it where it leads (regardless of level of intervention), plan and implement the intervention, and finally evaluate the effectiveness of their intervention.

7. Students should be able to identify, mobilize, link, and/or develop a broad range of resources which are applicable to problem prevention and resolution in their communities. These include existing and potential resources on the local, state, regional and federal levels.

8. Students should be able to utilize their knowledge of the customs, traditions, heritage and culture of the people of Oklahoma, such as rural, Native American and Black, with whom they are working to provide services to the people with special awareness and sensitivity.

9. Students should be able to work within an organization or agency and plan for and initiate change in the agency's policy(ies) and practice(s) when such change is indicated and desired.

10. Students should be able to evaluate their own practice methods, strategies, and interventions and to modify their practice accordingly. They should be able to function independently with minimum supervision.

11. Students should be able to provide social work consultation and staff development services.

REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE TASK STUDY GROUPS

The primary format of the conference divided the conference participants, including representatives from various western schools of social work acting as consultants, local rural community practitioners, and Fresno State faculty and students, into task-oriented discussion groups. These discussion groups were to consider key issues concerning rural curriculum. By design each group dealt with the same questions. The intent of these small groups was to give priority to the group process rather than emphasize the content production of the groups' discussion. This reinforced the goal of establishing a communication network among the participants as well as, more importantly, providing a forum for the local participants to enhance their awareness of those issues important to establishing a specific rural curriculum program at Fresno. Not only were the local participants increasing their knowledge about the issues, but they were also receiving reinforcement and identifying themselves as a rural curriculum development task force. In order to establish a rural concentration at Fresno, this coalition of community practitioners, faculty members, and students would have to support each other and build the foundation upon which the program would be erected. The conference was to be a key step in nurturing this group during its formative stages.

Although process was emphasized it was also anticipated that the ideas generated in the work groups would contribute worthwhile information for consideration in rural curriculum planning. While there were probably few new revelations, nonetheless, the areas covered offered valuable reinforcement for the fact that the issues in rural social work practice are constant, and that definitive curriculum objectives can be developed.

The first day was spent in the task groups clarifying various issues relevant to rural social work practice. Each group had a graduate student recorder; the following summarizes their notes for each group.

Rural Issues

The first questions asked about rurality. Is "rural" unique? Is there a "rural" environment? Is "rural" many different life-styles, defying categorization? Is ethnicity a part of rurality? As can be imagined, discussion was lively, and arriving at consensus often difficult.

Group number one began by identifying resource differences peculiar to rural areas. Isolation from formal agency service areas; lack of awareness of services; service accessibility problems such as transportation, poverty, interpersonal relationship patterns and life-styles; inability of people to escape the past, feudal systems, and attitudes toward outsiders, were all discussed in relation to urban counterparts. While most people thought that one may experience the same notion of isolation, poverty, and the like as a member of an inner city ghetto, for example, the group still maintained that rural was unique where life-styles, ethnicity, etc., might contribute to a specific rural environment. However, the group concluded that rurality must be defined as one's own discovery of an "affectional commonality" that can only be represented as a "state of mind."

Group number two also thought traditional definitions of rurality no longer applicable. Rural communities, they maintained, are no longer isolated from cities and the problems of rural areas are interdependent with problems in urban areas. This group sought to draw a parallel between international develment and rural areas, stating that there is a generic similarity of underdeveloped countries and rural areas in the United States. They indicated that an important dimension worth consideration is "who owns the rural areas." Rural communities are often locked into a corporate service system. The members felt that rural areas have peculiar problems often associated with a particular region. Systemic relationships in informal and formal services are distinctly different. Natural systems are important in felt and perceived needs of a community and have been in existence for a much longer period of time than formal or informal systems. Contract interpretation is different in rural areas where a "gentleman's agreement" can still have meaning. Regarding ethnicity, there are usually clusters or groups of people with different value orientations. Distance is not only in mileage but is psychological, social, and cultural as well.

The third group noted that all areas have basic human needs and locality-relevant styles of living and offered the following as some of the factors common to rural areas:

1. There is a different economic base--e.g., agriculture, mining, lumbering.
2. Politics are different.
3. There are different ways of solving/coping with problems.
4. Relationships between people are more personal.
5. The population is less dense.
6. The community has an interdependent nature.
7. Suspiciousness of strangers/outsiders is frequently evident.

This group further stated that it is difficult to define rural since "rural" has changed over time. They indicated that ethnicity can be important and relevant in certain localities, but did not think it would be seen as part of a general definition of rural.

General Questions

Next, based on the issues raised, the work groups were asked to consider the following practice questions: Is there something unique about practice in rural areas? In the generalist model most applicable and if so, what is meant by it? Is there a role for the specialist in rural practice? Is there a relative hierarchy of practice roles based on social needs in rural settings? Is it "rural social work" or "social work" in rural communities? Since these questions covered an immense area it was not expected that the groups necessarily answer each of these in a definitive or exhaustive manner. However some of the group responses are noted below and can be considered as supplementing and adding depth to other materials previously published regarding social work practice in rural areas.*

There was much consistency among the discussion groups in response to the practice questions. All of the groups indicated a strong preference for viewing rural practice as social work in rural communities rather than "rural social work"; all validated unique features about rural practice. There was some disagreement as to whether there is a hierarchy of the roles to be performed, as suggested in the Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet keynote address, but at a minimum it was recognized that the rural social worker must be prepared for a multiplicity of roles. The generalist model of practice received hearty endorsement, including the notion that this could allow for some specialization within this model and that with respect to rural practice can itself be seen as a specialization in its own right. Some of the groups' observations regarding rural practice are noted below:

Many felt that rural practice often places more emphasis on program development skills rather than strictly clinical or community organization demands, but all agreed an integration of skills is the ungoing priority. The rural worker must be able to work with the community as opposed to on it, to it, or even for it. Groups noted the following roles as important: Broker (this involves knowledge of formal, informal, and natural systems operating); professional learner (learn with a degree of humility from community in rural practice); helper (provide problem-solving opportunities and facilitate people assisting one another in times of need); others included program developer, mobilizer, planner, administrator, advocate, facilitator, collaborator, educator, resource developer, consultant, counselor, therapist, and crisis interventionist. The flexibility required of performing the various roles above within the rural context was seen as critical to effective practice. Other characteristics the rural worker should possess include: independence (there is much less support from colleagues); tolerance with isolation; have an interactionist style--low key but persistent (role of the worker has to be more personal); ability to work with paraprofessionals; ability to develop own support and consultation systems; have the ability to "expose" oneself when engaged in service; be willing and have the capacity to integrate social and work activities; able to enjoy the community life-style as an active participant. All the groups said in various ways that the rural worker must be committed or have a dedication to rural work otherwise a rural job can often be a stepping stone to urban employment. (One respondent in the Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project Survey summarized this well when they indicated a rural worker has to be almost "missionary.")

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*For example the reader can refer to the article on "Educational Assumptions for Rural Social Work" by the Southern Regional Education Board as reported in Social Work in Rural Communities edited by Leon Ginsberg (Leon Ginsberg Council on Social Work Education, New York, 1976). Also helpful is the paper by Paul Campbell and Steve Webster, "Contextual Differences in Urban and Rural Practice," in the Second Annual Northern Symposium on Human Services in the Rural Environment Reader by David Best, The Center for Social Service, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1977.

Consumer Expectations

The next set of questions sought to deal with consumer issues. The workshop task groups were asked: "Are there specific expectations which agencies have for worker performance in rural areas? Are expectations different for urban and rural workers? Are clients' expectations and perceptions specific to the context?" With respect to consumer interests the study groups once again emphasized the importance the community and rural context have for the rural worker. Rural workers must be aware of the uniqueness as well as wholeness, or system interrelationships, of the communities in which they practice. This includes awareness of the following levels of community and skills that must be employed: The community as a whole necessitate community organization skills. Utilization of community helpers requires skills with informal and natural delivery systems. The success of the community agency demands program development skills. The community citizens need the skills of the broker and counselor among other talents that their social worker must possess.

Most rural agencies appear to expect that their workers function as generalists. This is an important consideration in training rural social workers, since schools of social work are assumed to be training students for employment in the job market.

How rural agencies interpret their missions is vital to the approach rural workers must take and their training should reflect this. An apparent trend of students to specialize for example as clinicians must be viewed with caution by schools of social work preparing students for rural practice.

Educational Background

The last general issue that the conference work groups discussed was what the appropriate and necessary competencies were for the BSW and MSW level social workers entering rural practice. Before outlining the differences in competencies, two study groups noted that there are not necessarily more BSW's functioning in rural areas than MSW's.* The groups thus seemed to be clearly supporting the need for both BSW and MSW practitioners for rural areas.

The conference participants overwhelmingly adopted the position that, in general, one would expect a "better quality product" from an MSW graduate than from the BSW. They outlined some specific differences in expectations as follows. BSW's should receive instruction in individual, small group dynamics, and community organizations in order that they might practice effectively within the rural context. MSW's in addition should receive advanced instruction in organizational, community and regional processes in order to affect outcomes of those systems. The MSW training could include supervision of undergraduate students. The BSW should be able to provide some direct services, referral information and gather necessary information as required for planning, evaluation, and development. The MSW needs to function as a teacher, community resource consultant, provide community and agency leadership. The MSW would be expected to function with more autonomy and probably see the profession as a source of identification. In general, the BSW level should be the beginning generalist while the MSW should reflect the conceptual knowledge and skills of an advanced generalist or "specialized" generalist.

Some Specific Curriculum Ideas

The first day of the conference was given to clarifying some rural social work practice issues. Such clarification was meant to provide information on which to base consideration of specific content areas in social work education. During the first day, through the participants' discussion of the rural context, practice issues, consumer interests, and expectations of BSW and MSW level practitioners, many specific suggestions were already made for the training of the rural workers. By reviewing the roles, knowledge, skills, values, and characteristics generally thought to be necessary for the rural practitioner, the conference study groups tried to consider further implications for rural curriculum development. Each group, through its own process, focused on somewhat different content areas. The content areas discussed are summarized below, following which suggestions concerning methodology are presented.

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*The Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project Survey would seem to support this notion. While there were more general bachelor degree providers, there were actually no BSW providers, as compared to four MSW practitioners out of 23.

One group offered the following as samples of skills they thought important. They noted students should receive training in sensitivity to oneself, others and nature. This relates to understanding how one's values affect practice, in addition to gaining an understanding of how the values of the community and its members relate to the individual practitioner. They further stated students should be expected to engage in "small talk" in a productive and easy manner. A rural social worker must be able to build his or her own system of support. Collaborative skills can be especially important (e.g., with rural M.D.'s). The rural worker must be able to work with small task-oriented groups of people. The group report went on to note that the rural practitioner needs to know how to acquire knowledge of historical issues peculiar to his/her region of practice. The worker should realize that most rural areas closely follow a cycle of activity (e.g., harvest, etc.) that has implications for service delivery timing. Having the knowledge of a variety of interventive strategies was a theme noted often and directly related to the support of the generalist training model.

Other comments regarding a sampling of base content ideas by the conference discussion groups primarily included, as one might expect, many thoughts about training social workers through experience and conceptual knowledge of the community in which they practice. The student should have integrated concepts of community structure and the dynamics of community processes. An analysis of a particular community needs to ask such questions as, "Who has the power and how did it develop?" "Who are the policy makers?" The student needs to consider settlement patterns, cultural and ethnic aspects, the economic base of the community, and a knowledge of the community's patterns of problem solving as well as a history of problem-solving activities. The rural student also needs to be aware of rural/urban linkages and assess how the rural area relates to external systems.

The practicum aspect or field component, compared with other curriculum areas, received the most attention from the task groups. Translation of classroom knowledge into practical, self-confident application in the field was a notion that existing rural practitioners, students, and faculty all could agree upon. Perhaps most controversial was the idea of using a student "team" approach in rural placements with proponents emphasizing that delivery systems can be enhanced through the pooling of student resources. Another popular concept was the idea of the student "team" inviting community people to be team members, thereby utilizing natural community resources.

The discussion groups also noted miscellaneous comments relative to various social work education curriculum areas which in summary supported a strong basic social work education. This appeared consistent with the conference groups' clear statement that rural practice is social work in rural area rather than "rural social work."

Summary

With its combination of papers and task study groups, then, the Rural Curriculum Development Conference was a successful experience for all participants. The process of the conference aided in the establishment of an informal communication network among social work educators concerned with rural social work in the Western United States. In addition, the conference supported the efforts of the Rural Child Welfare and Family Service Project Advisory Committee in trying to establish a more specific rural curriculum concentration at the California State University, Fresno, School of Social Work.

Although the task was overwhelming with respect to the content objectives, some important issues and curriculum matters were clarified. The uniqueness of social work practice in rural areas again received active testimony. The need for the rurally trained worker to have a more explicit conceptual framework was affirmed. The importance of locality relevant training with a good deal of attention being given to community matters was a constant theme. The personal characteristics necessary for the personalized interaction often primary to rural practice underlined the critical need for the process of professional socialization to be responsive in nurturing the values, attitudes, and commitment of the student interested in rural social work. The need for incorporating experimental methodologies in our rural training programs was emphasized while the specific content for various curriculum areas needs to be worked out by the individual faculties involved in developing their own rural programming. The overall conceptual model most applicable would appear to be that of the generalist. Within this context the closing session of the conference noted that due to the demands of learning multiple roles, the rural social worker must be committed to a process of continued learning in the development of his or her career. If schools of social work can influence this orientation to a process of life-long learning, perhaps they will have accomplished their most important goal.

Part III

SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS: IMPLEMENTING RURAL CURRICULUM

SUPPLEMENTARY PAPERS: IMPLEMENTING RURAL CURRICULUM

Introduction

After determining the needs for training social workers for rural practice and considering the content areas to be included in program curriculum, the processes of planning and implementation are the next major tasks. The following papers under this section have generously been made available by their respective authors with the hope that by sharing their thoughts and experience they may be of help to individuals and institutions who are considering implementing rurally oriented content into their training programs.

The first outline is a discussion guide developed by Edward Ihle of Syracuse University, School of Social Work. This informal tool provided a productive way to lead a discussion at a recent workshop concerning rural curriculum. Professor Ihle's suggestions offer a practical approach toward adding rurally oriented content.

Paul Campbell has been one of the leaders in promoting the appropriate training of social workers for rural areas. Through his Appalachian experiences, his involvement at the University of Tennessee, his participation in the rural social work caucus, and now his doctoral studies, he has continually demonstrated his strong rural commitment. In the second paper presented in this section, Paul examines some of the intricacies of the academic system with which rural advocates must contend. He makes a convincing call for deviating from current educational training models to effectively meet the needs of interpersonal, action oriented rural practice. He asks us to consider the findings of a thorough problem identification process in order to provide a base from which to plan appropriate efforts at implementing rural training programs. His suggestion that we should give considerable attention to cross cultural education is especially worthy of our interest.

Stephen Webster is well known for his chairmanship of the rural social work caucus and his efforts as a rural advocate. While at the University of Tennessee he provided leadership for the First Annual Institute on Social Work in Rural Areas and the following year after he had moved to the University of Wisconsin he again provided leadership that nurtured the successful Second Annual Institute in Social Work in Rural Areas held at Madison, Wisconsin in 1977. In the paper he has made available for this report, he reviews some of the issues to be considered in incorporating rural content into existing curricula in graduate schools of social work. He questions the models applicable to rural training and faces the dilemma of social problem versus methods

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oriented curriculum. In the second part of his report he lists more specific issues to be considered derived from a limited Delphi Survey and concludes with a brief list of explicit ideas for incorporating rural content.

The dynamic duo of Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet have perhaps done more to aid in the conceptual development of social work in rural areas than any other educators. Their concise and clearly stated ideas provide the foundation for many programs. Their willingness to share their experiences and interests has helped many areas who have been fortunate enough to have them at workshops and conferences. The importance of experimental learning in rural training and the primary role that field instruction must play in rural training gives these authors in this next paper an opportunity to examine those issues "most significant in the reinstatement of practicum in a practice profession to a role more compatible with the professional values and ideals of social work." While the issues examined are generic aspects of field instruction, they also address specific aspects of rural field instruction. They ask us to consider the valuable nature of "instruction" in practicum models as opposed to equating field with "experience" only. They conclude by making a plea for us to plan our practicum curriculum within the context of our educational goals rather than letting the function of field instruction be defined as almost an afterthought in terms of limitations.

While Robert Deaton of the University of Montana, Missoula, might prefer to spend most of his time bicycling through rural America, his interests in rural economic development and the role of continuing education in rural training are also given prime attention by this soft-spoken, energetic educator. In the last paper in this section on implementation, he concisely reminds us of the vital part continuing education can play in thoughtful rural curriculum development.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS OF LAUNCHING A NEW RURAL SOCIAL WORK COURSE*

The following outline is presented as a stimulus for discussion and to indicate the wide range of initiatives which are presented in almost every social work program which could support the creation and launching of a new Rural Social Work Course into the curriculum. The numerical sequence is, of course, not inviolate, although a generally rational progression is suggested. Much activity that is (or may be) concurrent, likewise, may appear in an artificially sequenced order. If your program is located in a rural area, much of the material in Part I may be obvious or redundant. If you are "urban based," these points can be critical to the actual launching of a Rural Social Work Course.

I. Creating a Rural Social Work Course

A. Rural Involvement: This is a critical aspect of the process. Become involved in rural human service activities by:

1. Getting on regional (or rural) planning boards/committees
2. Get involved as a project or program consultant on a rural program
3. Teach a course(s), a la outreach, extension, or continuing education model to practitioners in rural areas
4. Recruit field instruction opportunities in rural areas
5. Others - discuss

B. Collegial Involvement: Recruit colleagues who are interested in human services in the rural environment.

Ideas: colleagues who:
1. Were born/live(d) in rural area(s)
2. Formerly worked in rural area(s)

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*Informal discussion outline developed by Edward Ihle, Syracuse University School of Social Work for the workshop, Adding Rurally-Oriented Content to Social Work Curricula: Process and Products, held at the CSWE-APM, New Orleans, 1978.

3. Currently serve on regional or rural boards/committees
4. Need something to do
5. Others - discuss

C. Student Involvement: (1) Recruit students into your program who are from rural areas and (2) Recruit students already in your program who are interested in pursuing some studies which emphasize social work in rural areas.

D. Become familiar with the literature, and media, resources which deal with or focus on issues relevant to human services in rural environments. These include: national publications, magazines, newspaper articles, TV specials, conferences, journals, etc., etc., etc. Discuss.

II. Launching a Rural Social Work Course

A. Program Supports: Ascertain whether or not there will be program supports for development of a new course or series of courses dealing with rural social work. Discuss.

B. Examine curriculum structure for areas where content regarding social work in rural areas could be readily incorporated into existing courses.

C. Such content can usually be developed and expanded into an entire unit or even into an entire course. You may find that the existing curriculum structure of your program could support the launching of several courses, which could comprise a major study concentration without requiring a great deal (or any at all) of revision.

Example: 1) I teach in the Curriculum Area of Social Welfare Policy and Services (e.g., SWK 612).

2) I develop and incorporate some material re: social work in rural areas into my course (e.g., SWK 612).

3) I expand this material and begin to offer a section of Social Welfare Policy and Services in Rural Areas (e.g., SWK 612 - Sec X - Rural).

D. Integration into Total Curriculum Structure: The following comparison of a "typical" 60-credit hour MSW curriculum is presented here to show how rural social work content may be integrated into several course areas within the curriculum resulting in a major emphasis, e.g., 30 hours of the 60 total, devoted to social work in rural areas.

PROPOSAL FOR A RURAL SOCIAL WORK CONCENTRATION

Curriculum Area	Semester & Course			
	I	II	III	IV
(Practice) Methods: e.g., (O&P)	O&P I	O&P II: *Social Development/Planning in Rural Setting	O&P III	O&P IV
Field Instruction	FI 1	FI 2	FI 3	FI 4
Human Behavior & Social Environment	HB & SE (Intro.)	HB & SE: *Rural Behaviors	HB & SE	
Services & Policy	Social Ser. & Policy (Intro.)	*Social Services and Policy in Rural Setting		
Research		Research		
Electives	Elective		Elective	*Elective Elective
Independent Study (Thesis)			*Rural focus Thesis/ Ind. Study	*Rural focus Thesis/ Ind. Study

*New course (or Independent Study guidelines) specifically relating to rural setting.

Note: Fifty percent (30 hours)--including field instruction, independent study, one (1) elective, one (1) Human Behavior and Social Environment, one (1) Social Services, and one (1) methods course--would be rural centered.

Example: A "typical" 60-credit hour social work curriculum at the MSW level.

	Semester & Courses			
	I	II	III	IV
Methods	G & F, G, or O & P	2	3	4
Field Instruction	X	X	X	X
Human Behavior & Social Environment	X	X	X	
Social Policy & Services	X	X		
Research		X		
Electives	X		X	X, X
Independent Study (Thesis)			X	X

Example modified to reflect a concentration on "rural studies" or "rural social services."

IMPLEMENTING RURAL SOCIAL WORK CONTENT: NEED IS NOT ENOUGH*

The purpose of this paper is to share both my experience and concern in relation to integrating rural content into the social work curriculum.

From 1973 to 1977, Steve Webster and I worked to develop a rural thrust as part of the MSSW program at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville. Prior to this time, I had the opportunity, under a grant from the Appalachian Regional Commission, to market and implement pilot programs in rural Appalachian Studies based upon classroom involvement and rural community service internships. As a result of these and other experiences with rural baccalaureate and and master's programs, it seems that while each institution has differing structure, resources, and constraints, there are common factors involved in implementing rural curricula. These shared factors relate to the various concepts that are a part of curriculum development, institutional change, problem solving, resource development, as well as those concepts common to rural social work curriculum and cross-cultural education.

While it is not the purpose of this paper to deal in depth with the concepts of institutional change, problem-solving techniques, and resource development, it should be noted that these are important and possible overriding factors in implementing rural content.

While most schools of social work are in a state of perpetual curricular revision, there is an academic and political balance that is affected by any attempt to reform the existing program to include rural content or field experiences. However, this institutional change involves the school at many levels. Advocacy for a single topic or problem area as rural social work exists as only a portion of the institution's overall agenda. The question of whether or not to initiate and support rural social work programs is seldom decided on the basis of merit.

The advocate, on encountering the system, expects resistance to change from those who benefit from the status quo, those who wish to protect "their" domain, elitist faculty cliques, and from administrative myopia.

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*By Paul Campbell, currently a doctoral student at the University of Alabama, formerly a faculty member with the University of Tennessee. Originally presented in draft form at a workshop on Rural Curriculum Development held at the CSWE-APM, New Orleans, 1978.

However, there are other intervening variables which are less obvious and more central to the existence of a valid rural program.

There is the question of content. While there is general agreement that the professional school should prepare future practitioners, there is friction over what the content should be. The balance between theory and skill could be sharply affected by decisions relating to preparation for rural practice, as rural practice is frequently seen as "less academic or theory based." There is a resultant status-related fear that a swing too far in the direction of application jeopardizes the school's reputation with other academics.

Another related question is the relationship of faculty to rural programs. While we freely teach in community organization that the community should be encouraged to assume increased involvement and participation in its institutions, somehow we have difficulty in applying this principle to our institutions of higher education that are located in and serve rural communities. The standardization of social work curriculum, more by commonalty of training and education than by accreditation, has established a caste system with the publishing scholar and administrator at the top and the field instructor or community-oriented teacher at the lower untenured levels. In rural areas, this power and influence differential is compounded by the fact that few rural young people graduate from college, which indicates that administration and control of programs in rural areas by individuals with a direct link to rural life is the exception rather than the rule. This causes some degree of value clash at all levels of program administration and implementation. This difference between rural clients and educators and students necessitates a strong involvement of community professionals and groups and implies a need for special attention to cross-cultural education that focuses on the values of the educator and learner in relation to the rural community.

Another tension that impacts upon rural content is the resistance of professional education to innovation. It is my contention that to adequately teach rural practice, deviation from the current model is necessary. Call it innovation or change, but a single course as "Rural Social Work" is inadequate to effectively meet the needs of action-oriented rural practice. Supportive changes in field practice, curriculum modules in both planning administration and practice, faculty assignments, community interface, and institutional involvement all require new arrangements beyond the school's current operational situation.

If inclusion of rural curriculum is approached either by the rational problem-solving method, or curriculum building, or educational system planning, or a systems model, the same sequential steps must be followed.

For the purposes of this paper, the approach to curriculum design, with the many steps from needs identification to feedback and revision, have been grouped into two units: problem identification and problem resolution. This approach places the identification and specification of educational objectives in the category of problem identification, and the organization, of curriculum content related to the identified objectives and necessary instructional techniques under problem resolution. I will repeat what is frequently stated, in relation to the scientific method approach, that in-depth development of problem identification simplifies and insures efficiency of problem resolution.

Problem Identification

This stage establishes a decision-making screen which serves the purpose of anticipating the environment in which the proposed program is expected to operate. In my experience, this is the crucial point in the decision-making process.

The questions we usually ask in this stage are: Why do we want the Program? How will it be funded? Can we justify the Program? Who will have control? We also should ask: Who wants it? What are the political and power ramifications? How will the character of the institution influence program design? Who will be enrolled? Who are potential students? These questions are not as easy to answer as they might first appear.

Mager (1961),[1] Popham (1966),[2] and Kaufman (1972)[3] suggest the purpose of this stage is to differentiate between "what is" and "what should be." The responses delineate outcome gaps or outcome needs. If the answers to these questions are to realistically guide our strategy and systemic expectations, we must go beyond the global, jargonized responses found in accreditation documents or curriculum committee memoranda. For example, if the educational institution is only paying rural social work token lip service through an in-house zealot for the purpose of grant procurement or accreditation facilitation, it would be better to face this at the outset of the planning process, incorporate this information into the implementation strategy, and avoid the anxiety of attempting to develop a full blown rural program with a thin support base which may shift with the tide.

The title of this paper suggests that need is not necessarily the outcome gap around which rural social work programs are organized. The following are "bottom line statements" which we frequently hear informally discussed and my interpretation of the basis for outcome needs which have a direct manifest or latent effect upon implementation.

"Bottom Line"	Outcome Need
That's where the jobs are	Employment of graduates
We have neglected the rural community	Curriculum balance
We have an obligation to serve our community	Community Service
Students want it	Student needs
Another school has it	Competition
I/we think it's important	Personal interest
The administration wants it	Administrative control
We need additional field sites	Field practice enrichment
We need to provide additional resources to the practitioner now working in the rural area	Continuing Education
We need it to help keep/get accreditation	Professional sanction
The aging institute needs help in relating students and citizens to rural problems	Interdisciplinary Commitments
Rural Sociology can't offer what our students need	Interdisciplinary Needs
It's a major problem area and must be addressed	Core or basic curriculum development
Have had the need but not resources	Adequate staffing development

Problem Resolution

This is the "how to get it done" stage and is the area given most attention in developing programs to educate workers for rural practice. However, one area that I feel has not been given enough attention is that of cross-cultural education.

The following comments are based on an article by Harrison and Hopkins[4] relating to the training of Peace Corps volunteers for service overseas--a situation I feel is analogous to education for rural practice. These authors support the transferability of their findings to "any situation that requires the ability to adapt to or to act in unfamiliar and ambiguous social situations."[5] They include in this category "all types of community development work, at home or abroad, especially with disadvantaged or institutional subcultures that differ basically from the outside world."[6]

They found that the training design based upon the university model was inadequate for reasons not only directly related to the Peace Corps volunteer context, but also due to differences between cross-cultural and traditional educational goals. I feel that this goal conflict is also found in programs which seek to educate rural practitioners. Colleges and universities, following traditional goals, do help students become more rational, more critical, more detached, and more adept at manipulation of words, symbols and abstractions, providing intellectual understanding of cultural diversity of values and assumptions that differ from their own. And this is important in the education process.

But, we are less effective at educating for interpersonal effectiveness in area as establishing and maintaining trust and communication, motivating, influencing, consulting, and advising in relationships that take place across differences in values, in ways of perceiving and thinking, and in cultural norms and expectations.[7]

For example, Harrison and Hopkins state that a major goal of university education related to decision making is as follows: to develop critical judgment: the ability to test assertions, assumptions and opinions against the hard facts and the criteria of logic. To reduce susceptibility to specious argument and to be skeptical of intuition and emotion. To search for the best, most rational, most economical and elegant solution.[8]

They suggest the divergent goal of cross-cultural education should be to: develop ability to come to conclusions and take action on inadequate, unreliable and conflicting information. To be able to trust feelings, attitudes and beliefs as well as facts. To search for the possible course, the viable alternative, the durable though inelegant solution.[9]

Schein and Bennis[10] suggest that university education and cross-cultural education differ in the "meta-goals" of training. While I am sure that Schein and Bennis coined this term because the prefix meta means "along-with," it also means in the chemical definition "less water."

The authors use this descriptive term to identify learning and personal development which the learner acquires in the process of being educated. Learning how to learn is an important concept in teaching community-based practice. The dependence upon authorities, settings, and book-related approaches of traditional education does not provide the opportunity to gain competence in many of the skills and learning styles necessary to function as an effective rural social worker.

This inadequacy is frequently labeled as culture shock when applied to new workers in the field, but I see it as learning shock because the supports of the formal education system are not available or are not sufficient to help the new worker solve the new problems faced in the new setting.

To highlight the differences between meta-goals of traditional education and cross-cultural education, Harrison and Hopkins present the following comparison:

Meta-Goals of Traditional College and University Classrooms	Appropriate Meta-Goals For Cross-Cultural Training
Source of Information: information comes from experts and authoritative sources through the media of books, lectures, audio-visual presentations. "If you have a question, look it up."	Source of Information: information sources must be developed by the learner from the social environment. Information gathering methods include observation and questioning of associates, other learners and chance acquaintances.
Learning Settings: learning takes place in settings designated for the purpose, e.g., classrooms and libraries.	Learning Settings: the entire social environment is the setting for learning. Every human encounter provides relevant information.
Problem Solving Approaches: problems are defined and posed to the learner by experts and authorities. The correct problem solving methods are specified, and the student's work is checked for application of the proper method and for accuracy, or at least reasonableness of results. The emphasis is on solutions to known problems.	Problem Solving Approaches: the learner is on his own to define problems, generate hypotheses and collect information from the social environment. The emphasis is on discovering problems and developing problem solving approaches on the spot.
Role of Emotions and Values: problems are largely dealt with at an ideational level. Questions of reason and of fact are paramount. Feelings and values may be discussed but are rarely acted upon.	Role of Emotions and Values: problems are usually value and emotion-laden. Facts are often less relevant than the perceptions and attitudes which people hold. Values and feelings have action consequences, and action must be taken.

Criteria of Successful Learning: favorable evaluation by experts and authorities of the quality of the individual's intellectual productions, primarily written work.	Criteria of Successful Learning: the establishment and maintenance of effective and satisfying relationships with others in the work setting. This includes the ability to communicate with and influence others. Often there are no criteria available other than the attitudes of the parties involved in the relationship.[11]

Just as rural education is impacted by other issues related to the professional and higher education, there is opportunity for rural practice to have positive effect on these areas as well.

Wendell Berry, in his book, Unsettling of America,[12] introduces the idea of orthodoxy, margins, and change. Berry states that in modern objective disciplines there exists a modern scientific orthodoxy which we should not expect to change from within itself. It is enforced from within simply by prosperity, from without it is enforced by the mistaken conviction that it is the only way. If change is to come, then, it will have to come from the margins which can clarify and challenge standards and demonstrate better possibilities. I feel that rural social work practice is in a perfect position "on the margin" and can lead the way to education innovation in social work.

FOOTNOTES

[1] R. Mager, Setting Instructional Objectives (Palo Alto: Fearon Publishers, Inc., 1961).

[2] W. J. Popham, Educational Objectives (Los Angeles: Vimcet Associates, 1966).

[3] R. A. Kaufman, Educational System Planning (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972).

[4] R. Harrison and R. Hopkins, "The Design of Cross-Cultural Training: An Alternative to the University Model," in W. Bennis, K. Benne and R. Chin, eds., The Planning of Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 2nd ed., 1968), pp. 373-395.

[5] Ibid., p. 374.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Ibid., p. 376.

[8] Ibid., p. 377.

[9] Ibid.

[10] E. H. Schein and W. Bennis, Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965).

[11] Harrison and Hopkins, op. cit., p. 379.

[12] Wendell Berry, The Unsettling of America: Culture and Agriculture (San Francisco: Sierra Club Books, 1977).

INCORPORATING RURAL CONTENT INTO EXISTING CURRICULA IN GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK*

Part I

The purpose of Part One is to enumerate several of the questions or issues that must be raised to consider effective methods for integrating rural content into graduate social work curricula. There has been a reawakening of social work interest in rural service delivery to the extent that a recent survey of Schools of Social Work regarding rural content showed 49 schools responding with most of the respondents teaching at least one course dealing with social work practice in rural areas.[1] As more schools develop interest and experience in this area there is increasing demand for an organized and tested set of guidelines for developing and evaluating rural-oriented programs. This paper will use the word "rural" for the rest of the paper. It ought to be made explicit that no clear acceptable definition of the term rural exists and that we might as easily talk of non-metropolitan and/or small town.

For the purposes of muddying the water even further, let's examine some current "policy" definitions of rural. The Census Bureau defines "rural" as including only settlements of fewer than 2,500 persons and other territory that is outside of urbanized areas. This definitely limits significantly what can be appropriately termed rural yet we recognize many communities over 2,500 that have decidedly rural characteristics. Another definition denotes as "rural" all areas not within an SMSA. However, SMSA's frequently include some very rural areas since they are usually defined by county lines.

If one looks to the statutes for guidance one is confused even more. A study by the Congressional Rural Caucus developed a 20-page single-spaced list of different statute definitions of "rural."[2] Several statutes use a metro/non-metro definition. For example, HUD Community Development Block Grants are apportioned in a ratio of four-to-one between metro and non-metro areas. Farmers' Home Administration limits housing loans to towns of fewer than 10,000 population, water and sewer financing is limited to towns of fewer than 5,500 and business-industrial loans are limited to towns of fewer than 50,000. Clearly, no uniform, standard definition exists and those that do exist are often applicable within the narrow confines of programs to which they are attached.

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*By Stephen A. Webster of the University of Wisconsin. Originally presented in draft form at a workshop on Rural Curriculum Development held at the Council on Social Work Education, Annual Program Meeting, New Orleans, 1978.

Having participated in many meetings like this before I am buoyed, however, by what I perceive to be an unwritten, undefined, consensus about what is rural and what is not. At least we can say that Tazewell, Tennessee is rural and Boston, Massachusetts is not.

The Task

Our appointed task is to identify the form and nature of "rural social work" or "social work in rural areas" and our special challenge is to develop creative and effective methods for incorporating rural content into social work education in such a way as to positively impact on the resolution of social problems in rural America through the provision of highly skilled social workers.

Many curriculum integration and development models presently exist. A glance social work method approaches. The topics range from incorporating materials on racial minorities, mentally retarded, and physically handicapped to developing curricula for casework, planning, and administration. A partial listing of these efforts might have as many as 50 citations. Clearly, models exist that should be analyzed for their applicability to rural efforts.

What is Rural

An examination of these models, however, leads to a dilemma. How is social work in rural areas--i.e., a geographical context, conceptually similar or dissimilar to social work with a specific social problem or method focus? Obviously, rural areas have all types of social problems that exist in urban areas. Obvious, also, is that a variety of social work methods are practiced on behalf of rural populations. Many of the social problem curriculum development efforts have been on behalf of groups of individuals who can be considered out of the mainstream of American life. These curriculum development efforts have tended to focus on the unique experience of the minority group vis-a-vis the decisions and norms made by the majority. For the members of these special groups the rural experience is also an encounter with mainstream America and as such any special rural curriculum development for these groups may, in fact, be very similar to the experience for their urban counterpart.

However, rural writers are quick to point out the wide range of demands upon a rural worker. In fact some suggest that a large part of social work in rural areas is social work with the majority. Social work with the majority may lead to a host of demands being placed upon the professional that have not heretofore been explicated. For example, one type of issue frequently mentioned by rural writers is the need for the social worker to horizontally integrate into the rural community's power structure. This integration into the majority viewpoint and institutions may be foreign to workers trained to advocate against these community institutions.

Another example prevalent for rural workers is establishing contracts with dominant conservative ethnic groups who are in the majority. Service provision to traditional social work client groups frequently requires long-term social work with the majority to raise consciousness levels to a point where service provision can take place. Clearly, educating social workers for practice on behalf of social problem groups means educating them for a host of unexpected roles.

It is assumed that "rural areas" are not a homogeneous lot and that rural areas differ as much from each other as they do from urban America in general. However, attempts at model building for rural curriculum development require some generalizations about the "rural experience" if guidelines are to be established that relate required or suggested rural content. In lieu of established content the best the model can do is establish "process" benchmarks that insure that somehow some rural content is being included. From this prior discussion emerges the first principal task--i.e., identify what is rural. Any attempt at this, however, ought to embrace the notion that the knowledge content may be elusive to the curriculum planner.

Rural social work educators have bandied about a term that rhetorically captures the rural experience and may shed light on this issue. That term--nay--concept, is locality relevant education. I am not sure a definition of this term is available or desirable, but I take it to mean educating social workers about the exigencies of practice within a geographical and cultural context and that students are taught the history, norms, and culture of the area they work in. Locality relevant education is not new to social work for, in fact, urban schools have always used their host city as a locality relevant resource. Problems have arisen when workers trained in one locality relevant situation have been asked to transfer that experience to another context. Many rural social workers have suggested that the transfer is not always easily accomplished. The most obvious example of this is the urban-trained worker moving to a sparsely populated area. It is possible, however, that this transfer is as problematic moving from California to Arkansas as it is from the big city to the rural area. This particular dilemma is often resolved in part by social work educators who maintain that social work is social work no matter where it is practiced. However, when rural workers first encounter the 24-hour visibility and scheduling, the life-style scrutiny, and the number of miles being put on their car, they begin to realize something is different.

Curriculum models extant in schools of social work follow to a good degree the same conceptual framework adopted above--i.e., social problem or method. An additional orientation found in very large schools mixes these two together and offers courses without a seemingly overarching (without an umbrella) curriculum structure and depend on student choice for selecting an appropriate course of study. The difficulties and opportunities in each of these designs is touched on later in the paper and will not be dealt with here. However, it bears mention here that perhaps, none of the three structures are appropriate for training rural practitioners. One could conceive of the "Development Model" that would track students based on knowledge and skills appropriate for practice in areas under 2,500 population, between 2,500 and 10,000, 10,000-50,000 on to practice in large metropolitan areas.[3]

Curriculum Integration and Development Methods

The following discussion presupposes an answer to the dilemma discussed above and examines curriculum development for rural practice from a goal/objective planning perspective. I do not mean to imply that this is the only or preferred model. Actually, rural curriculum development efforts to date have been highly successful. Hindsight suggests that an "entrepreneurial guerilla" model has been primarily utilized. We must not reject this model without examining its strengths. For one thing it may prove to be the most locality-relevant approach.

Although it seems obvious it bears mentioning that unless faculty at a school see the utility of incorporating rural content and are committed to that task most efforts will be unsuccessful.

The first question to be asked during the Need Assessment phase relates to the educational objectives of the graduate program. Does the program intend to prepare social workers for practice with rural populations? This may be either a stated or de facto objective. An examination of faculty and administration attitudes will shed light on this issue as will written documents of the department and the university or college. One must also look to the graduates to see if, regardless of intent, the school prepares workers for non-metropolitan jobs. Not all rural social workers necessarily operate in rural areas,though. The school needs to also examine urban-based policy and planning positions that its graduates occupy.

It is our experience that very few schools monitor their graduates to see where they end up and what the relationship is between their education and their practice.[4] Consequently, very little data exists on this question generally but it is difficult to conceive of a school where no graduates have responsibility for rural areas.

The next step is to examine the existing curriculum offering to assess the degree of rural content presently being taught. (Although the field course is particularly important it will not be dealt with because it is the subject of another paper in preparation.) Unless this existing content be totally anecdotal it must be guided by the answers to "what is rural" alluded to above. This content resource assessment should suggest gaps in the curriculum that must be filled to train workers for rural practice.

At this point the curriculum planner encounters another set of "between a rock and a hard place" decisions. Should rural content be principally integrated into all courses or should the material be delivered in a course or a series of courses specifically aimed at teaching rural practice? Groups developing new curricula do not seem to have arrived at an optimal answer to this question. To some extent, the structure of the curriculum affects this situation. The last five to seven years have seen increased publishing activity by persons with rural interests. Presently, anywhere from one to five articles about rural practice with special interest groups--i.e., the low income, developmentally disabled, single parents, aging in rural areas, are available. If the curriculum has a social problem orientation, these materials can be automatically included on bibliographies and consequently, to a minor degree, rural content is included.

Schools with a method focus, however, present a different problem. Rural writers have not tended to write as much about the application of social work methods, e.g., planning, administration, casework, groupwork, counseling to rural service areas. The incorporations discussed above, therefore, cannot realistically take place until more is written about the unique application of these methods in rural practice situations.[5]

Schools that train primarily rural practitioners, it would seem have an obligation to incorporate "rural content" in all of their classes. Schools that train for a multiplicity of roles might favor the one course or track model.[6] The political climate of large universities rewards specialists who develop the "body of knowledge" requisites for offering a course. These political exigencies might suggest the latter strategy. Irrespective of approach, each school that seeks to incorporate rural content should have a "resident expert" to assist and guide this effort. A resource as valuable as the rural expert and one that is frequently overlooked is the student, him/herself. It has been my experience that many of the students I have met have rural roots. They have enriched and challenged my own perceptions about rural service delivery and ought not to be disregarded.

It seems fairly clear that recent literature developments in the rural field have produced a sufficient body of knowledge to justify and constitute either an entire course or integrate rural content in existing courses. Even locality relevance has been operationalized in a paper developed for the first Roundtable.[7]

The final determination of the nature of rural content is also important to these considerations. One way of proceeding is to ascertain whether the context of practice is the sole determinant of the unique characteristics of rural practice as whether the client groups present challenges that require a unique constellation of previously accepted social work skills and some new ones yet undetermined. The question then becomes to what extent are the differences between urban and rural practice matters of kind or degree?[8] *The theory base that we are developing must focus on what is different if we are to justify special considerations and curricula.*

It is possible that if the differences are only in degree and not in kind then rural content can be incorporated into existing courses. If, however, the differences are in kind then clearly new courses and new approaches must be developed.

Specialization

Finally, graduate education allows for specialization to a much greater degree than undergraduate education and therefore any curriculum-building efforts relative to rural social work must grapple with this issue. Hardly anyone would disagree with the appropriateness of the generalist model for rural practice and indeed, most of the articles that deal with this issue from a rural perspective embrace the generalist practice model totally. Those who advocate other specialist models do not deny the importance of the generalist but rather suggest that rural areas can and do support specialist practice. Clearly, many policy and planning positions deal with services to rural populations and few would argue that these positions require specialist training. Also, many social treatment specialists find themselves working in state hospitals and mental health sites with exclusively rural populations. To what degree does the profession seek to prepare specialists for rural practice? Should the profession consider the knowledge and skill requisites for a rural specialization? Do the curriculum models that train generalists in fact prepare persons for rural practice?

This paper has hopefully highlighted some of the conceptual issues that must be resolved preparatory to establishing or incorporating rural content. Over the past year the author has had at least a dozen requests from colleagues across the country for materials and guidance in establishing rural courses and rural programs. This is a year when "rural" appears to be in for the Washington funders. We can probably expect rapid expansion of course offering on rural practice. We can even expect programs to claim that they train only rural workers. We do not now have any guidelines for engaging or assessing the development and certification/accreditation of programs with a rural focus. The time has clearly arrived for deliberations on these issues.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Peter Hookey, Survey of Schools With Rural Social Work Content (University of Illinois, 1978).

[2] Frank Tsutras, "Current Political Realities of Rural Areas," Social Work in Rural Areas: Preparation and Practice Green & Webster, eds., (OCSWE, Knoxville, Tennessee), p. 39.

[3] In this regard, it is possible that the words urban-rural do not meet the needs of social workers. Rather, we are talking about operating in different types of service delivery systems that array themselves along a continuum that roughly parallels the population continuum. Factors like density, social problem incidence, and geographical dispersion then affect the development, administration and operation of these different types of delivery systems. I suspect that social workers could be taught a constellation of skills and knowledge appropriate for a given system configuration. This method would seem particularly useful for training generalists.

[4] Burt Caswell, Survey of Schools of Social Work. Presented at CSWE-APM, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1974.

[5] Isolated examples of method focus papers exist but are relatively scarce.

[6] Many groups like women, minorities, have indicated they feel it "cheapens" the content to offer it all in one course and not require that the content be integrated into all courses.

[7] Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet, "A Compendium of Teaching Material for Rural Social Work", CSWE-APM, Phoenix, Arizona, 1977.

[8] Some writers have begun to attempt this. See, for example, Stephen A. Webster and Paul M. Campbell, "Contextual Differences in Urban and Rural Practice", Northern Wisconsin Symposium on Human Services in the Rural Environment; 2nd Annual Reader, David Bast, ed., (Madison, Wisc.: The Center for Social Service, University of Wisconsin, 1977), pp. 2-9. A review of these characteristics suggests that many can be collapsed into differences in density, social problem incidence, geographical dispersion, scarce resources, traditional based life-styles, and the lack of a professional network and support system.

Part II

Barriers to Incorporating Rural Content

The purpose of Part II is to consider some specific issues with regard to incorporating rural content. The first section reports preliminary results from the first phase of a Delphi Survey, conducted at last year's APM. The survey has a pitifully small N of 12 and consequently will be readministered this year. The results are offered here with only obvious duplications removed and as a beginning point for our discussions.

What, in your opinion, are the major barriers to be overcome in developing foci in social work education?

1. Financial support for students including transportation.
2. Adequate supervision and role models.
3. Overcoming urban bias in faculty to produce specialists rather than generalists.
4. Time and money to support block placements which make rural field placements possible for "urban" universities.
5. Availability of data supporting need for rural practitioners and documenting flow of students from rural to urban living in search of jobs.
6. Defining specific practices for rural areas: the old "generalist" statement is too vague: what can a generalist do?
7. Overcoming urban-band practice methodologies that dominate literature, practice and philosophy of social work.
8. Develop rural field placement.
9. The problems of definition of the area. Is it "rural social work" or "social work in rural communities"?
10. Problems of structuring rural experiences for nonrural students interested in the field.
11. Allied content to be taught to students (Rural Sociology? Agricultural policies? Mining policies? What?).
12. Student interest in private practice.
13. Structured settings for field experience.
14. Available transportation.

15. Rural attitudes toward social workers.

16. CSWE!! Strong urban bias, priority setting based on urban needs, lack of understanding of rural services.

17. Move in many graduate programs to specialization.

18. Lack of conceptualization about rural practice skills.

19. Lack of awareness on the part of "urban" educators of the continuum of differences between rural and urban populations.

20. Lack of materials in an easily (or more easily) available form for all educators.

21. Lack of a rural-based power based within the national organizations to stimulate rural-related curriculum, etc., etc.

22. Inflexible use of accreditation standards (particularly field supervision standard) by CSWE.

23. General communication difficulties.

24. Funds for instructional faculty--especially field instructors.

25. Funds for program support--mileage, living costs, etc.

26. Text and resource-type material with social service in rural areas--focus--both policy and direct practice--interpersonal and planning.

27. Lack of awareness on part of rural practitioners of special needs and characteristics of rural areas and special training necessary for successful practice in a rural area.

28. Some pressure from CSWE regarding accreditation, reaccreditation to focus on rural problems, issues and minorities.

29. Isolation from resources, knowledge, and communication with rural population.

30. Urban people wanting to work in rural areas.

31. Rural people wanting to be "independent", not dependent on social services other than the community.

32. Urban training of educators.

33. Urban-oriented administration.

34. Need to develop teaching materials and think rather than merely repeating what has been taught to you.

35. The general urban bias towards service delivery and problem definition.

36. Less student interest since (1) more jobs are available in urban areas, and (2) many students seem more interested in moving to larger communities.

37. Lack of cross-fertiliztion between rural sociologists and social work (mainly due to aloof nature of the former).

38. Lack of cross-fertilization between extension service personnel and social work graduate schools.

Resources for Incorporating Rural Content

What types of materials and experiences do you feel would increase your knowledge and skill and enable you to teach and develop your competence in rural social work?

1. Classroom materials to provide theoretical framework under which student gains or compares against field experience.

2. Discussion of variants and specifics of rural social work methodology.

3. Information on models of supervision in field practice.

4. Examples of successful field placements.

5. More specific examples of pilot and demonstration projects--what works, what doesn't?

6. Suggestions for solving social problems in energy boom towns.

7. Content discussions on what constitutes rural social work (essential similarities and differences from social work in general).

8. Discussion on what allied knowledge to include and by whose expertise.

9. Identification of a united front. What do most rural social workers need to practice? What is the nature of rural practice?

10. Videotapes or films of rural experiences in social work.

11. Papers on rural behavior.

12. Information on the rural social planner.

13. Rural community studies.

14. Case records from rural areas.
15. An undergraduate-level practice text focusing on generalist role.
16. Conceptualization of skills needed for rural practice.
17. Opportunities to meet with other educators. Both regionally and nationally.
18. Articles and papers of topical nature dealing with specific aspects of rural social work field and classroom programs.
19. Information funding sources for rural projects.
20. Workshops and seminars to bring us together to help us focus and sharpen our skills on rural education.
21. Knowing the needs of rural communities.
22. Knowing the power structures of rural communities.
23. Rural textbook.
24. Quality control consultation by rural-oriented educators
25. Syllable and teaching materials on the nature of "private troubles" and "public issues" as they manifest a rural perspective.

Techniques for Incorporating Rural Content

Finally, previous discussions on rural content have generally begun with a period of wailing about the deficiencies in the literature--no textbook, etc. The response to this perceived lack of teaching materials has been to rely heavily on Field Instruction as a preferred method for incorporating rural/locality relevant materials into the curriculum.

To an extent these field experiences have been relied on classroom instruction and as such represent viable incorporations of locality relevant instruction. At a minimum this incorporation might involve using case examples from the school's practice and service area, using field placements as a source of discussion, or using field placements as a reference point for analytic or descriptive papers.

It is probably safe to say that most classroom teachers stop at this point and prefer to rely on book and articles for other content sources--thus the shortfall in written teaching materials. However, innovative instructors have developed a host of different techniques for bringing the field to class.

To the extent that these methods utilize locality relevant situations and/or are based on rural situations they serve as highly effective means for including rural content. Following is a brief listing of possible techniques. This paper will not elaborate on this list:

- -guest speakers
- -field trips
- -community site analysis
- -local agency analysis
- -class or small group community research projects
- -class or small group public service projects
- -technical assistance consultation and projects
- -interactive simulations
- -computer simulations
- -audio and videotapes
- -student directed and produced videotape documentaries

ISSUES IN CAMPUS-BASED FIELD INSTRUCTION IN RURAL SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION*

Introduction

The issues that can be raised with regard to campus-based field instruction in a rural environment cover the general gamut of field questions as well as some specific to rurality, the latter because of the unique nature of social services in rural areas. But to say that some rural field problems are generic to social work education is not to dismiss them as unworthy of address. In fact, the more exposure we have to the current state of "field" within educational circles, the more compelling are the reasons to retrace old paths. Historically, we have read accounts of the second class citizenship of field dating back at least to Walker's 1928 description,[1] and reemphasized in the Hollis-Taylor report of 1951.[2] We notice today how little academic prestige and educational respect is accorded the field; how much "form" is concentrated upon in school-agency relations, with evasion or downplaying of substance. We are struck with the variance in definitions of terms essential to field discussions, and the existence of long-time ambiguities and inconsistencies in field conceptualizations manifest in the professional literature. Because field education has been accorded lower class status by the majority of schools and that status reflected in their professional gatherings, we think that a maverick sub-area like rural social work education provides an excellent opportunity to reverse a self-defeating trend. The pragmatism and anti-elitism already predominant in rural education networks both well for rethinking urban concepts in their entirety. This paper alerts the rural educator/practitioner to those issues most significant in the reinstatement of practicum in a practice profession to a role more compatible with the professional values and ideals of social work.

Issue #1: The Place of Field Instruction in the Curriculum

The course titles of the field component provide the major clue to the diverse intentions of schools in this regard. Field instruction is not a synonym for field work or field experience or field observation, though seldom are the distinctions among them articulated. More recent course innovations refer to "Interventive Processes" or simply "Practicum I" without corresponding initiatives to clarify meaning. What is the field component supposed to provide within the student's educational program? Knowledge not lodged in other curriculum areas? Integration of knowledge from foundations and practice sequences? Combinations of these intents? In lieu of an articulated position on this issue, sub-systems of schools--faculty, students, agency personnel--presume their own assumptions about the place of field in the curriculum, with divisiveness and scapegoating as natural outcomes.

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*By Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet, originally presented at a Roundtable on Rural Social Work Education, CSWE-APM, New Orleans, 1978.

Issue #2: Range of Experience Versus Depth of Experience Provided in Field

With many rural social work educators advocating a "generalist" practice stance as most appropriate to the rural environment,[3] some educators are concluding that students need to be exposed to a wide range of field experiences during their educational program. Range can be applied to breadth of social phenomena addressed, or to systemic levels targeted for change efforts (e.g. micro levels, vs. macro levels), or to quantity of interventive methods (casework, group work, community or organizational change methods) used by social workers. Schemata to combine range and depth refer, for example, to "generalist practice within one circumscribed, traditional field" (e.g. medical, mental health, child welfare). Whether rurality lends itself to bounding in any of these forms is one consideration; more to the point is the relationship of this issue to the one above. What constitutes an acceptable and practical range of experience can only be decided within the framework of understanding of what place the field component occupies in the total educational effort of the school.

Issue #3: Relative Amount of Time Devoted to Field Within the Curriculum

The literature is prolific on the issue of timing of field entry and suggested distribution of field courses vis a vis academic courses.[4] CSWE mandates minimum number of "clock hours" of field within curricula for certain programs, although flexibility remains in how schools choose to allot the spread. Nevertheless, the issue is complex for several reasons. Assuming a school does know what educational freight the field component must carry as compared with the other curriculum sequences, the task is the computation and distribution of field hours in the most efficient and effective manner to achieve educational goals. However, "field" is used differentially within a program to attain discrete goals. Undergraduate programs have favored a field observation preparatory to the professional coursework. To achieve "balance in learning," both BSW and MSW programs have experimented with concurrent field and academic courses in attempts to promote realism of the subject matter and motivation in the student. Field has been designed as a "learning plateau" for integration of knowledge from other curriculum areas. Models supportive of the latter concept tend toward block field semesters interspersed with academic semesters, or at the termination of academic coursework, a la "internship" patterns. Summer field experience is becoming an evaluative mechanism preparatory to entry into abbreviated, "advanced standing" graduate programs. All of these models, of course, deal with "time" in some form and fall under the rubric of "campus based" depending upon administrative control arrangements.

Issue #4: Teaching Models Employed in Field Instruction

Elsewhere, we have compared and contrasted three distinct types of field teaching models along a multi-dimensional scale.[5] The issue of appropriateness of models for specific field instruction patterns naturally depends upon all the foregoing issues. Teaching models in field instruction are analogous to teaching methodology in the classroom: once one knows what the course goals and objectives are, how often and in what time frames the class will meet, what selected content is to be emphasized, and what resources exist, then a teaching method can be picked which will most directly influence efficiency and effectiveness of learning. What is in dispute in educational circles is not the logic of this process, but the analogy of field teaching and classroom teaching. It is often more comfortable for educators and practitioners alike to refer to the analogy of field supervision and agency supervision, with emphasis on the regulatory control/administrative aspects of supervision rather than on the teaching aspects. The pros and cons of this issue then, harken back to the definitional problems referred to above. And resolution of this issue is interrelated with each of the preceding ones.

Issue #5: Competencies Required of Field Instructors

Theorists have addressed the topics of selection of field instructors, orientation and staff developed for field instructors, and special matters such as the "burn-out factor" in field education. Among agency mores and customs, we hear that student supervision is a beginning step up into regular supervision. In contradistinction, we hear that student supervision requires greater, or at least different, expertise than worker supervision because of the necessity for the supervisor to "conceptualize" the learning. Because field instructors are considered to be role models of practice competence for their students, the risk factor in this educational role has been analyzed.

Articulated beliefs about the desirable qualities of field instructors aside, the practice of many schools has been to abdicate the selection of field personnel to agencies when "clinical appointments" of field faculty are at issue. When full-time faculty were to be hired by schools for utilization in field education, differential criteria were applied from those used for faculty who were to be deployed in classroom teaching. Salary schedules, professional rank, contractual difference--all varied, and the current turmoil forcing single track promotion and tenure regulations because of "financial exigency" is created largely by the historical, disparate requirements.

Inventory of competencies, credentials, and experience requisite to field instruction must be considered in the light of what the field component is supposed to do. In rural locales, with scarcity of credentialed personnel an acknowledged fact, careful determination of the type of personnel needed is crucial to the building of a viable field component. The myth of the rural "wasteful" is propagated only when assumptions are made about what is needed in the way of personnel--without relating that issue to other considerations of field goal and intent, relation to other curriculum sequences, and so on.

Issue #6: Administrative Arrangements for Field Instruction

This issue turns our attention to the many administrative models in vogue in schools, all boasting distinct advantages and disadvantages. It is with respect to this issue that the idea of rurality often takes primacy over the more fundamental considerations intrinsic to field instruction. Rural uniquenesses with respect to travel, funding, control-distance variables, can be logically "fit in" to a school's plan only after a school has made preliminary decisions affecting preceding issues. Then, one is in a position to consider merits and faults of such patterns as: (1) faculty-based instruction in agencies, or in geographic "territories" irrespective of what agencies exist in the territory; (2) field instruction using agency-based supervisors; (3) models using a combination of school-based field coordinator and agency-supervisor; (4) independent internship approaches, with or without school responsibility and accountability; (5) campus-as-practicum-site models, with many forms of instructional arrangements.

Issue #7: Range of Practicum/ Field Sites

Where a school decides to place students in a rural area requires sophisticated understanding of what is involved, understanding that transcends the mundane problems of travel, time and money, and the administrative arrangements available to support the venture. For the experienced rural educator and practitioner, identification of the range of social service delivery systems in rural America--natural, formal and informal--uncovers a rich lode of potential practicum placements and a rattlesnake's nest of complicated (nay, "incestuous") relationships among community service providers. A school must understand what student manpower can do to potential development of some rural service systems, and to the balance of power among competing systems serving a sparsely populated or underdeveloped geographical locale. The problems and promises of sheer quantity of students deployed in systems where they out-number all other staff combined, the impact of students on service capacity and demand, the systemic convergence produced by deployment of students of one school in all social service systems in a particular territory--these and other issues are indeed unique to rural, and the reciprocity of these issues with other educational matters (as for example, what is "rural," what knowledge is required for rural practice, what academic courses should be provided and with what methodology to prepare for rural experience....) render this issue one of the most complex to be raised.

Issue #8: School/Administrative Relationships With Agencies

This issue goes beyond the agreements or contracts for number of students, agency space to be utilized, communication channels between school and agency, and respective division of responsibility and accountability for student performance. It also encompasses a little-discussed but thorny problem in field education, and particularly in rural field education where role of the student-practitioner is highly visible. Sanction and auspice for a social work student to practice the profession he/she is learning what is at issue. So permission to practice based on the school's auspice and sanction, and thus the "student" role is paramount; or is a student permitted to practice because of the agency's patronage and mandate, thus "practitioner" role is paramount? The decision as to role of the student in "practice" affects teaching/learning in many profound ways. And in rural America, it will affect the school-rural community relationships as well! Rurality means visibility. Questioning of role will not be limited to a few, carefully chosen individual "clients" of a formal agency.

Issue #9: Inter-Departmental and Intra-School Relationships

Last, but not least by any means, are the issues related to changing relationships between social work departments and other departments within the same college or university, and issues related to change in alignments and quality of relationships among sub-systems of a social work department itself, as a rural field component develops and emerges within the educational program. We have written that a field instructional program which logically facilitates education for autonomous rural practice within the generalist concept, has three requirements:

> The final requirement, no less crucial than the previous two, is an educational institution prepared to support, financially as well as morally, both the process and the professional risk-taking inherent in generalist practice. All too frequently, our faithful companion--Dean Tonto--when faced with a war party from the town or the comptroller's office, gives us that "...what do you mean, we, 'Paleface'," response.[6]

Preparation for this kind of rural field instruction changes teaching methodology in many academic classroom courses. It changes the nature of relationships between faculty and students, and among students in the high-risk, dependency-promoting atmosphere of a small community. It changes the relationships between faculty, and between faculty and administration if it is an effective field model. Many of these changes are by-products of the educational decisions associated with the foregoing issues. Many are not predictable within a specific school or department, but can only be understood and conceptualized in retrospect. Change is not without pain, even planned change.

Conclusion

The nine issues that comprise the focus of this paper are admittedly and intentionally generic aspects of field instruction. But they also address specific aspects of rural field instruction. Retracing what urban-metropolitan schools have incompletely and insufficiently conceptualized with regard to the process and product of field development is a necessary part of examining rural, campus-based field instruction issues.

If one assumes that the field component involves the transmission of new knowledge and the integration of that knowledge into a practice mold, then the function of the field is "instruction," which predicates both personnel and experimental requirements. The type of experiences necessary to this model will influence choice of administrative arrangements and range of practicum sites. Conversely, if field equals "experience," the resource demands are of a very different order for the educational goal is different.

The foregoing is an obvious statement of ideal educational methodology. But if one starts with a site, or administrative arrangement, or absence of instructor as a "given," then the function of field instruction in the curriculum must logically be defined in terms of the limitations; i.e., the educational goal must be adjusted.

What all too frequently is done, is that the educational objective remains at the ideal level and environmental constraints are tacitly accepted in program administration. The resulting behavior, if lodged in an individual rather than in an organizational system, would be labelled schizophrenic, the product of the classic double bind!

FOOTNOTES

[1] Sydnor H. Walker, Social Work and the Training of Social Workers (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1928).

[2] Ernest V. Hollis and Alice L. Taylor, Social Work Education in the United States (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951).

[3] Leon Ginsberg, "Rural Social Work," in Encyclopedia of Social Work (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1977, Vol. II).

[4] Kristen Wenzel, ed., Undergraduate Field Instruction Programs: Current Issues and Predictions (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1972).

[5] Mermelstein and Sundet, "A Teaching Model for Rural Field Instruction". In Green and Webster, eds., Social Work in Rural Areas: Preparation and Practice (Knoxville: University of Tennessee, School of Social Work, 1977).

[6] Mermelstein and Sundet, "Education for Social Work Practice in the Rural Context." Keynote address at Conference on Human Service Delivery Systems in Small Communities, Minnesota Conference on SW Education and Wisconsin Council on Education for SW (Saint Paul, April, 1975).

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1. Brackett, Jeffrey Richardson, Supervision and Education in Charity (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1903).

2. Hagerty, James Edward, The Training of Social Workers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931).

3. Berengarten, Sidney, ACSW "Educational Issues in Field Instruction in Social Work," Social Service Review, Vol. 35, September, 1961.

4. CSWE, Field Learning and Teaching (New Orleans: Southern Printing Company, 1968).

SOCIAL WORK CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR RURAL AREAS: BEGINNING WHERE GENERALIST PREPARATION ENDS*

Social work continuing education programs that serve rural service providers frequently are called on to conduct training for development of specific skills and understandings.

The preparation of the generalist practitioner working in rural settings is in vogue in virtually all undergraduate programs and at least 62 graduate schools of social work.[1] The generalist educational framework provides students with course work and field experience in a broad social work practice model. An extensive conceptual grounding in the behavioral and social sciences enables the student to develop a knowledge base for further lifelong learning. Some individuals develop specializations on their own while in college, usually in relation to a particular client population. Children in need of protection, adolescent lawbreakers, the developmentally disabled, and the elderly are those of most interest.

The problem with generalist preparation is that social workers, like any other practitioners, do not perform in general ways, but in most specific episodes of intervention.

Ginsberg comments that the generalist role is the most widely accepted one for rural-based social workers. He goes on to describe a myriad of specialized skills for the rural worker. These include community organization, program development, management, budgeting, and research.[2]

Mermelstein and Sundet have established the importance of developing skills for learning about the context of the small community.[3] Contextual issues include measures for learning about community values, local economic factors, demographic arrangements, and pertinent history.

The preceding ideas provide direction for continuing education efforts for rural practice:

1. Specialized Services--There are some services provided similarly in rural and in urban areas that require specific training. Child protection, adoptions, and community services for the developmentally disabled are timely examples.

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*By Robert Deaton, Coordinator of the Social Work Continuing Education Program at the University of Montana-Missoula. First presented as a Roundtable discussion paper at the CSWE-APM, New Orleans, February 26, 1978.

2. The Rural Context--Short courses have been arranged to help staff learn about small communities where they live and work. Content includes rural development, community-assessment procedures, and finding informal service networks.

3. Worker Burnout--Short workshops on burnout problems are rejuvenating to staff. Individual management procedures to help persons gain control over work loads and personal time are well received. Informal sharing of job frustrations and solutions to problems boost morale significantly.

4. Management Training--Administrative and supervisory personnel often need instruction in management functions. Program planning, evaluation, budgeting, and employee appraisal frequently are areas of training interests.

In addition to careful selection of topics and content, scheduling and use of resources also must be tailored to rural needs.

Experience consistently indicates that workshops, conferences, and short courses must be scheduled in regional areas rather than within commuting range of the college or university from which the programs originate. As a rule, the instructional staff should travel rather than staff who are scattered.

Programmed-instruction courses using a home-study format are very useful for meeting individual needs of persons in remote locations. Feedback from participants of these courses indicates that individual study must be supplemented with group training sessions where there is interaction among participants and instructors.

In the quest to provide formalized course structures, informal and unstructured possibilities often are overlooked. It appears increasingly important to have media materials, books, and professional journals available in a lending library for individual professional development and to provide materials for in-service training by staff.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Leon Ginsberg, "An Overview of Social Work Education for Rural Areas," *Social Work in Rural Communities* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), pp. 9-11.

[2] Charles Garvin, "Education for Generalist Practice: A Comparative Analysis of Current Modalities," *Teaching for Competence in the Delivery of Direct Services* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1976), p. 18.

[3] Joanne Mermelstein, "Education for Program Development," Address delivered at the Regional Conference on Education for Social Work in the Rural and Small Community, Indianapolis, Indiana, May 7, 1973.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, FRESNO
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK

RURAL CHILD WELFARE AND FAMILY SERVICES PROJECT SURVEY

I. General Information:

Name: ______________________________

Sex: M F Age: ____ Ethnic group: ____________ Bilingual ____________

Name of Agency: ______________________________

Agency Address: ______________________________ Phone: __________

Agency Goals and Objectives: ______________________________

____

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Title of Position: ______________________________

Brief Job Description: ______________________________

____

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____

____

Who monitors or supervises your activities? To whom are you responsible? ______________________________

____

Who do you supervise? ______________________________

____

____

With whom do you work--including colleagues, other professionals, community people, etc.? ______________________________

____

____

Education	Degree	Year	Subject Matter
High School			
Jr. College			
Graduate School			
Other			

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SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
Rural Child Welfare and Family Services Project
Survey
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II. Analysis of Time Use

The purpose of this section is to determine the relative proportion of your time you devote to major human service roles. Please consider your entire range of responsibilities from day to day. For each item, please indicate the approximate percentage of time spent conducting activities similar to these I describe:

(___%) 1. Brokering--Acts involving the identification of community resources giving information and referring and reaching out to individuals in your community, thus making your service available.

(___%) 2. Client Advocating--The "Client Advocate" represents a client in matters where their legal or human rights have been infringed upon.

(___%) 3. Activating--This role involves such tasks as conducting needs assessments, organizing interest groups, and other activities which lead to organized solutions of community problems and the development of new human service resources.

(___%) 4. Systems Advocating--Systems advocating involves the efforts to change or adjust the present service delivery system to meet the needs of a population of clients who may otherwise be rejected.

(___%) 5. Counseling--The counselor/counselee relationship is usually therapeutic in nature and deals with short-term problem-focused situations.

(___%) 6. Consulting--Consultation involves the exchange of relevant information with colleagues, such as case conferences, or organizations, where the consultant offers instruction, discussion, and alternatives which the consultee is free to accept or reject.

(___%) 7. Rehabilitation--Acts which attempt to increase a person's level of functioning with the ultimate goal of independence.

(___%) 8. Care Giving--Acts which maintain and/or control a person's physical, mental, or social level of functioning.

(___%) 9. Client Programming--The process involved here is appropriate data collection for the purposes of making decisions and planning for client services and case load management.

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(___%) 10. Systems Researching--The process involved here is the gathering of information and preparation of statistical reports of program activity to program evaluation and sophisticated research.

(___%) 11. Administration--The major thrust in decision making at all organizational levels; program management, personnel supervision, budgeting, fiscal operations, policy development, and facilities management.

III. Significant Activities

As you look back over the week's activities, which activities stand out as being significant or critical to the effective performance of your job?

Please briefly describe two (2) or three (3) activities that relate to the other activities involved in your job, were more significant and indicate briefly why.

1. ____

____
____
____
____
____

2. ____

____
____
____
____
____
____

3. ____

____
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____
____
____

If you were to spend your time differently in the way you provide your services in this rural area, what would you do differently? In other words how would you like to use your time?______

Are there specific reasons or problems that prevent your using your time as you would like?______

Do you find you are able to reach your target population? If yes, how? If no, what seems to be the constraint?______

IV. Influential Factors and Qualifications

1. What experience and skills, educational and personal qualifications, are fundamental and necessary for a person working in rural human services?

Educational	Experience & Skills	Personal Characteristics

2. What experience and skills, educational and personal qualifications are desirable for a person working in rural human services?

Educational	Experience & Skills	Personal Characteristics

3. Rural areas differ from one another and generally have specific regional problems, issues, concerns and characteristics. What are some of the unique features within the area you work?

4. Can you identify some specific services that may be lacking in your area?

5. What problems or needs do you feel are unique to rural areas?

6. Personally, what are some of the positive and negative aspects of working in a rural area?

7. In what ways do you feel a student entering a rural human service provision could be better prepared to help meet the needs in rural areas?

8. Do you have any suggestions for specific courses that the university should include in rural curriculum?

9. Please share any other thoughts, ideas, feelings, etc., that you would like to:

APPENDIX B

LIST OF RURAL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

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LIST OF RURAL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

-2-

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